
PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

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The Federal Employees Pay Act of 1945

ISMAR BARUCH

EFFECTIVE July 1, 1945, the Congress of the United States, through the provisions of the Federal Employees Pay Act of 1945,¹ made comprehensive changes in existing pay policies affecting federal white-collar employees who are subject to the general position-classification and pay policies expressed in the Classification Act of 1923, as amended.²

The new law, among other things, (a) raises the level of the basic-rate schedules of the Classification Act, (b) fixes 40 hours as the length of the basic workweek, (c) requires overtime pay at true time and one-half rates for work in excess of 40 hours in any one workweek, (d) liberalizes the granting of merit pay-increases, (e) introduces some flexibility in the fixing of minimum or hiring rates, (f) provides a pay differential for those whose regular work is at night, and (g) establishes a postwar policy of premium pay for holiday work.

¹Public Law 106, 79th Congress. An Act approved June 30, 1945, entitled "An Act to improve salary and wage administration in the Federal service; to provide pay for overtime and for night and holiday work; to amend the Classification Act of 1923, as amended; to bring about a reduction in Federal personnel and to establish personnel ceilings for Federal departments and agencies; to require a quarterly analysis of Federal employment; and for other purposes." Principal references to legislative hearings, reports, and debates (79th Cong., 1st sess.) are as follows: *Hearings before the Committee on Civil Service, United States Senate, on S. 807* April 25-May 2, 1945 (284p.); *Hearings before the Committee on the Civil Service, House of Representatives, on H. R. 2497 and H. R. 2703*, May 14-18, 1945 (249p.); Senate Report No. 265, May 12, 1945; House Report No. 726, June 8, 1945; House Report No. 784, June 23, 1945; *Congressional Record* (daily ed.) May 17, 1945, pp. 4775-4806; June 11, 1945, pp. 6003-6022; June 12, 1945, pp. 6108-15; June 13, 1945, pp. 6159-77; June 23, 1945, pp. 6692-96; June 25, 1945, pp. 6780-83.

²Although some sections of the Federal Employees Pay Act of 1945 have a wider or a different application, this article will concern itself with its pay provisions as they relate to the 1,220,000 salaried employees subject to the annual rate schedules of the Classification Act of 1923, as amended.

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Although wartime conditions necessarily highlighted the need for these changes, they were adopted not as temporary expedients, but as continuing improvements in the pay plan.³

BASIC RATE SCHEDULES

THE PROBLEM of revising basic rate schedules for white-collar or salaried officers and employees in the public service, who are engaged in a great variety of clerical, supervisory, administrative, technical, professional, and scientific occupations, is in broad outline essentially the same in all governments—national, state, and local. Traditionally, such schedules are established legislatively and are not quickly responsive to changes in economic conditions. Historically, too, they are conservative in level and do not permit effective recruiting in competition with private industry from the standpoint of the financial inducements that can be offered.⁴

The basic rate schedules of the Classification Act in effect between 1928-30 and 1945 were no exception to this familiar pattern. Although some increases were authorized in 1936 for processing positions at hourly rates in the Bureau of Engraving and Printing, and in 1942 for custodial, maintenance, and protective positions, no changes had been made for fifteen years in the pay schedules for clerical, supervisory, administrative, technical, professional, and scientific occupations. Over a million, or 86 per cent, of the employees concerned, were in these categories.

³See U. S. Civil Service Commission, *60th Annual Report* for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1943, "Improving Salary and Wage Practices," pp. 31-43; *Ibid.*, *61st Annual Report* for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1944, pp. 1-4.

⁴For a more detailed treatment of this subject, see Ismar Baruch, "The Wartime Salary Problem," *Public Personnel Review*, April, 1944, pp. 77-88. See also U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Trend of Earnings Among White-Collar Workers During the War*, Bulletin No. 783, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington: 1944.

In the meantime, according to the national cost-of-living index of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, the cost of living had risen at least 26 per cent since January, 1941, the base date for application of the Little Steel formula of the National War Labor Board.⁵ Other workers, both in the federal government and in industry, had enjoyed basic wage increases up to the 15 per cent limit established by that formula, to compensate, at least in part, for this considerable increase in living expenses. The Federal Employees Pay Act of 1945 was designed to establish a reasonable relationship between the statutory pay schedules of the Classification Act and the changes that had taken place in economic conditions and in the prevailing wage schedules of government employees in crafts, trades, and labor occupations.

IN CARRYING OUT this design, the following important considerations, in addition to increased cost, were given weight in the establishment of the formula adopted for the determination of the new rates:

(a) Maintenance of the existing position-classification structure and general plan of administration of the Classification Act. It was appreciated that the existing classifications of positions, the machinery for continuous operations to keep such classifications reasonably current, and the fixed compensation schedules of the act afforded a definite basis for revising basic pay schedules.

(b) Conformity with national salary and wage stabilization policy, particularly the Little Steel formula. The plan for developing the new basic rate schedules was submitted to the Chairman of the National War Labor Board, who stated that the resulting pay adjustments were wholly within the limits of the national salary and wage stabilization program.⁶

(c) Desirability of granting higher percentage increases in the lower brackets than in the higher brackets. With respect to the sliding percentage scale

used in the new law, the House Civil Service Committee observed: "Nevertheless, it is the sense of the committee that factors other than the relationship of salaries to living costs deserve more weight in the future than can be given to them at present. In the postwar period, the problems of government, the inevitable complexities of administration, and the importance of effective service to the people will justify unusual emphasis upon high standards in selecting, promoting, and retaining personnel. This is particularly true of the middle and higher brackets. But with high qualification standards must be associated rates of compensation that are reasonably attractive to persons who meet those standards. . . . The sliding scale used in this bill, which in effect discriminates against those in the middle and higher brackets, is not intended as a permanent policy."⁷

(d) Placing a salary "ceiling" of \$10,000 a year based on existing rates for positions of agency heads and others outside the scope of the new law.

The plan for raising the levels of the basic-rate schedules of the Classification Act was as follows: (1) Add to each existing basic rate 20 per cent of that part thereof which is not in excess of \$1,200 a year; (2) to this sum, add 10 per cent of that part of the existing rate which is in excess of \$1,200 a year but not in excess of \$4,600 a year; (3) to this sum, add 5 per cent of that part of the existing rate which is in excess of \$4,600 a year. For example, to an existing rate of \$2,000 a year would be added \$240 (20 per cent of \$1,200), plus \$80 (10 per cent of the difference between \$2,000 and \$1,200). The new rate would thus be \$2,320. Similarly, to an existing rate of \$5,000 a year would be added \$240 (20 per cent of \$1,200), plus \$340 (10 per cent of the difference between \$1,200 and \$4,600), plus \$20 (5 per cent of the excess over \$4,600). The existing rate would thus be increased to \$5,600 a year. The old rates, the amount and percentage of increase, and the new rates are shown in Table I.

This device for determining the new basic rates assured a continuous sliding percentage scale of increases, gradually diminishing from 20 per cent in the lowest brackets to 8.9 per cent at the highest rate. Up to and including the existing rate of \$1,200 a year, the increase was 20 per cent; at \$1,500, 18 per cent; at \$2,400, 15 per cent; at \$4,000, 13 per cent; at \$5,000, 12 per cent; at \$7,000, 10 per cent; and at \$9,000, 8.9 per cent. The over-all average in-

⁵ A report to the President, November 10, 1944, submitted by William H. Davis, Chairman, President's Cost of Living Committee, confirmed the accuracy of the Bureau of Labor Statistics index figures as "a competent measure of price changes for goods customarily purchased by families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers living in large cities." The committee also reported that under the exceptional market conditions of wartime, "allowance should be made for a hidden increase in the cost of living of probably as much as 3 and certainly not more than 4 percentage points, due to quality deterioration, disappearance of cheaper goods, decrease of special sales, and increases in under-reporting of prices actually charged."

⁶ Letter dated May 10, 1945, from the Chairman of the National War Labor Board to the Chairman of the Senate Civil Service Committee. *Hearings before the Committee on the Civil Service, House of Representatives*, 79th Cong., 1st sess., on H. R. 2497 and H. R. 2703, May 14-18, 1945, p. 131.

⁷ House Report No. 726, 79th Cong., 1st sess., June 8, 1945, p. 5.

TABLE I. INCREASES IN STANDARD ANNUAL SALARY RATES OF THE CLASSIFICATION ACT OF 1923, AS AMENDED, PROVIDED BY THE FEDERAL EMPLOYEES PAY ACT OF 1945, EFFECTIVE JULY 1, 1945.

Basic Rates June 30, 1945	Increase		Basic Rates July 1, 1945
	Amount	Per Cent	
\$ 720.00	\$144.00	20.0%	\$ 864.00
780.00	156.00	20.0	936.00
840.00	168.00	20.0	1,008.00
900.00	180.00	20.0	1,080.00
960.00	192.00	20.0	1,152.00
1,200.00	240.00	20.0	1,440.00
1,260.00	246.00	19.5	1,506.00
1,320.00	252.00	19.1	1,572.00
1,380.00	258.00	18.7	1,638.00
1,440.00	264.00	18.3	1,704.00
1,500.00	270.00	18.0	1,770.00
1,560.00	276.00	17.7	1,836.00
1,620.00	282.00	17.4	1,902.00
1,680.00	288.00	17.1	1,968.00
1,740.00	294.00	16.9	2,034.00
1,800.00	300.00	16.7	2,100.00
1,860.00	306.00	16.5	2,166.00
1,920.00	312.00	16.3	2,232.00
1,980.00	318.00	16.1	2,298.00
2,000.00	320.00	16.0	2,320.00
2,040.00	324.00	15.9	2,364.00
2,100.00	330.00	15.7	2,430.00
2,160.00	336.00	15.6	2,496.00
2,200.00	340.00	15.5	2,540.00
2,220.00	342.00	15.4	2,562.00
2,300.00	350.00	15.2	2,650.00
2,400.00	360.00	15.0	2,760.00
2,500.00	370.00	14.8	2,870.00
2,600.00	380.00	14.6	2,980.00
2,700.00	390.00	14.4	3,090.00
2,800.00	400.00	14.3	3,200.00
2,900.00	410.00	14.1	3,310.00
3,000.00	420.00	14.0	3,420.00
3,100.00	430.00	13.9	3,530.00
3,200.00	440.00	13.8	3,640.00
3,300.00	450.00	13.6	3,750.00
3,400.00	460.00	13.5	3,860.00
3,500.00	470.00	13.4	3,970.00
3,600.00	480.00	13.3	4,080.00
3,700.00	490.00	13.2	4,190.00
3,800.00	500.00	13.2	4,300.00
3,900.00	510.00	13.1	4,410.00
4,000.00	520.00	13.0	4,520.00
4,100.00	530.00	12.9	4,630.00
4,200.00	540.00	12.9	4,740.00
4,400.00	560.00	12.7	4,960.00
4,600.00	580.00	12.6	5,180.00
4,800.00	590.00	12.3	5,390.00
5,000.00	600.00	12.0	5,600.00
5,200.00	610.00	11.7	5,810.00
5,400.00	620.00	11.5	6,020.00
5,600.00	630.00	11.3	6,230.00
5,800.00	640.00	11.0	6,440.00
6,000.00	650.00	10.8	6,650.00
6,200.00	660.00	10.6	6,860.00
6,400.00	670.00	10.5	7,070.00
6,500.00	675.00	10.4	7,175.00
6,750.00	687.50	10.2	7,437.50
7,000.00	700.00	10.0	7,700.00
7,250.00	712.50	9.8	7,962.50
7,500.00	725.00	9.7	8,225.00
8,000.00	750.00	9.4	8,750.00
8,250.00	762.50	9.2	9,012.50
8,500.00	775.00	9.1	9,275.00
8,750.00	787.50	9.0	9,537.50
9,000.00	800.00	8.9	9,800.00

crease above prior rates was about 15.9 per cent.⁸

FORTY-HOUR BASIC WORKWEEK

WITH THE EXCEPTION of a few hourly scales, basic rates of pay under the Classification Act are expressed in dollars per year. Prior to 1940, however, there was little uniformity and no expression of legislative policy with respect to the length of a "year" in working hours. Employees hired at the same annual rate served according to work schedules established by their respective agencies.

At the same time, there was in effect a law enacted in 1906 to govern payroll computations and actual payment of money to salaried employees, which required that annual rates be regarded as payment for 360 days, regardless of the number of hours or days actually worked in a calendar year.⁹ On an eight-hour day basis, the work year for pay purposes was 2,880 hours, regardless of what it was in fact under the actual work-schedules of the various agencies. Thus an employee for pay purposes had to be regarded as being paid not only for workdays but also for nonworkdays, such as Sundays. Under the 1906 law, which established semi-monthly pay periods, the amount paid each pay period would always be the same so long as the employee worked the schedule required for a full-time employee, regardless of the fact that this schedule might vary by several hundred hours a year between different agencies or even within the same agency.

A regular 40-hour basic workweek had been established by Congress in 1934 for prevailing rate crafts and trades,¹⁰ and in 1935 for many employees of the Postal Service.¹¹ Not until the passage of emergency or war legislation¹² in

⁸ See also "Comparative Table Showing Changes in Minimum Pay of Annual-Rate Employees in the Federal Classified Service under New Schedule Effective July 1," Civil Service Assembly News Letter, July, 1945, p. 50.

⁹ Act of June 30, 1906, U. S. Code, title 5, sec. 84. This law established a payroll year of 12 months of 30 days each, regardless of the actual number of calendar days in any particular month, or the actual number of workdays in a month or a year.

¹⁰ Sec. 23, Act of March 28, 1934, U. S. Code, title 5, sec. 679c.

¹¹ Act of August 14, 1935, as amended, U. S. Code, title 39, sec. 832.

¹² Sec. 5 (a), Act of June 28, 1940 (Public Law 671); sec. 1, Act of October 21, 1940 (Public Law 873); sec. 4, Act of May 2, 1941 (Public Law 46); Act of June 3, 1941 (Public Law 100); Act of February 10, 1942 (Public Law 450); S. J. Res. 170, approved December 22, 1942; War Overtime Pay Act of May 7, 1943 (Public Law No. 49).

1940-43, was a similar policy recognized for salaried employees under the Classification Act, and this policy was temporary in character. The laws had definite expiration dates.

THE FEDERAL EMPLOYEES PAY ACT OF 1945 makes this policy permanent. It requires heads of agencies to establish a basic workweek of 40 hours of work to be performed within a period of not more than six of any seven consecutive days. In addition, it expressly provides that for pay computation purposes the basic per annum rates of compensation established by or pursuant to law, including those of the Classification Act, shall be regarded as payment for employment during 52 basic workweeks of 40 hours, or a total work year of 2,080 hours.

In this way, a definite, uniform figure is set as the number of hours that each salaried employee paid under the Classification Act is required to work regularly each week for 52 weeks to earn the dollar amount stated in his basic annual rate of pay. There is thus avoided the uncertainty that is inherent in a rate of pay expressed in terms of a calendar period, such as a day, a week, or a year. Calendar periods necessarily include both working hours and nonworking hours. In the same fashion the length of overtime service in any one week becomes definite. It consists of all hours of work in excess of 40 hours a week.

Another result of keying a basic 40-hour workweek to basic annual rates is a new standardization of pay computations and pay periods. Pay periods are now biweekly in lieu of semimonthly. An employee's weekly rate is derived by dividing an annual rate by 52; an hourly rate is derived by dividing a weekly rate by 40, or an annual rate by 2,080; and a daily rate is derived by multiplying an hourly rate by the number of daily hours of service required.¹³

HOURS OF WORK

PRIOR TO THE war emergency, the work schedules in effect were those established administratively under a statute directing heads of agencies to issue "general public regu-

lations, not inconsistent with law, setting forth the hours of duty per day and per week for each group of employees."¹⁴ Under this law weekly work schedules were made somewhat more uniform than they had previously been. According to a survey made by the Civil Service Commission as of September 30, 1937, about 85 per cent of the 773,100 employees covered, regularly worked 39, 40, or 44 hours a week. Of the remainder, a substantial number regularly worked 41½ or 48 hours a week. Eight per cent of the employees, however, were reported as working an irregular number of hours a week, and there was a wide variation among small groups. The survey included employees of the Postal Service.

With the coming of the war emergency, a good many agencies adopted a 44-hour regular workweek for salaried employees. The War and Navy Departments, for which emergency legislation permitted suspension of Saturday half-holidays, established a 48-hour week.¹⁵

The joint resolution of December 22, 1942, suspended the Saturday half-holiday law for all agencies, and for the first time authorized overtime pay for salaried workers on a general basis. When President Roosevelt signed this resolution, he advised agency heads as follows:¹⁶

While Saturday thus becomes a full workday with a legal minimum of seven hours in the departmental service, it is my desire that the head of each department and agency establish, upon my approval of the resolution, a general minimum work schedule of a six-day, 48-hour week for both the departmental and field service.

This became the general wartime policy with respect to the length of the workweek.

Although, as indicated, the 40-hour basic workweek established by the Federal Employees Pay Act of 1945 may, without overtime, extend over not more than six days, the law does not state the number of days that the workweek shall include. It was understood, however, that the groundwork was being laid for a weekly work schedule of five days of eight hours each, to be effective after the war, when overtime work would generally be

¹⁴ Act of March 14, 1936, U. S. Code, title 5, sec. 29a.

¹³ For a discussion of a similar problem in the Louisiana state service, see J. Emmett Frost, "Converting Monthly Pay Rates into Hourly and Daily Rates," *Public Personnel Review*, July, 1944, pp. 164-67.

¹⁵ For a short discussion of wartime workweeks in state and local government, see "The Wartime Salary Problem," *Public Personnel Review*, April, 1944, pp. 83-84.

¹⁶ Memorandum to heads of all departments and agencies, December 23, 1942.

eliminated. Two prior laws which interfered with this objective were repealed.¹⁷

Following the passage of the statute, the first indication of action toward a five-day, forty-hour weekly work schedule was the following statement of President Truman, which was transmitted by the Civil Service Commission to the agencies with its first regulations under the Federal Employees Pay Act of 1945.

It is my desire that, wherever practicable, the basic workweek of 40 hours provided for in the Federal Employees Pay Act of 1945 should be spread out over the first five days of the administrative workweek. The sixth day should be regarded as the day during which any hours in excess of 40 in a regularly scheduled workweek, should be scheduled. Wherever possible, the practice should be followed of scheduling the first 40 hours on Monday through Friday with any additional hours within an administrative workweek being scheduled for Saturday. Occasional overtime may, of course, be worked on whatever days it is required.¹⁸

On July 3, 1945, the President directed a change in the wartime work schedule from 48 to 44 hours a week in all agencies except the War Department, the Navy Department, the Treasury Department, the Veterans Administration, the Tennessee Valley Authority, and The Panama Canal. Those agencies were requested to "examine their various operations very carefully and, wherever possible, put into effect a 44-hour workweek." Other agencies were required to apply to the Director of the Bureau of the Budget for any exception to the general 44-hour workweek policy.

On August 23, 1945, the President directed a further change in work schedules to bring about a forty-hour workweek as a general policy. All departments and agencies were directed to reduce their weekly schedules to forty hours "unless such reduction in hours would result in a serious detriment to their essential operations." In such cases the heads of the agencies were required to report to the Director of the Bureau of the Budget the

reasons for their decision to maintain temporarily a workweek in excess of forty hours. The President stated in his order that reducing the workweek to forty hours would permit the establishment of a five-day forty-hour workweek wherever feasible.

OVERTIME PAY

IN CERTAIN PARTS of the federal service, authorization for overtime pay is of fairly long standing. The requirement of an 8-hour day in the Postal Service, with extra pay for longer daily hours, which now covers most occupational groups in that service, dates back to 1888 for letter carriers.¹⁹ Also in the Postal Service, permanent provisions of law enacted in 1935 authorized overtime pay or compensatory time off for work on Saturdays.²⁰ For prevailing rate crafts, trades, and labor groups, Congress specified in 1934 that for work in excess of 40 hours a week overtime pay at the rate of one and one-half times the regular rate should be granted.²¹

Prior to the war emergency, however, general provisions of law, some passed many years previously, prohibited additional pay for extra services performed by salaried employees, such as those under the Classification Act.²² Express legislative authorization was required, and this had been granted only where overtime service was performed under unusual circumstances.²³

¹⁹ Act of May 24, 1888, 25 Stat. 167; U. S. Code, title 39, secs. 116, 117, 607a, 613; Act of July 6, 1945 (Public Law No. 134, 79th Cong.), secs. 2, 16 (q).

²⁰ Act of August 14, 1935, as amended, U. S. Code, title 39, sec. 832; Act of July 6, 1945 (Public Law No. 134, 79th Cong.), secs. 3, 16 (p).

²¹ Sec. 23, Act of March 28, 1934, U. S. Code, title 5, sec. 673c.

²² "It is well settled that, in the absence of express statutory authorization therefor, payment of compensation for so-called overtime work to employees whose compensation is computed upon an annual basis is not authorized, such employees being paid for every day of the year and not being entitled to additional compensation for any amount of work required in excess of their usual hours of duty." 15 Decisions of the Comptroller General 937, 938, April 23, 1936.

²³ In this category is overtime service performed by specified kinds of inspectors between 5 P.M. and 8 A.M. at the request of and for the convenience or profit of carriers, shippers, or vessel owners or agents, for which they reimburse the government in most instances. The statutes are as follows: customs inspectors and other customs employees, Act of February 13, 1911, as amended, U. S. Code, title 19, secs. 261, 267, 1401, 1450-55; Act of June 3, 1944 (Public Law No. 328, 79th Cong.); immigration and naturalization inspectors, Act of March 2, 1931, U. S. Code, title 8, secs. 109a, 109b; marine inspectors (now Coast Guard), Act of May 11, 1938, U. S. Code, title 46, sec. 382b; ship-radio inspectors, Federal Communications Commission, Act of March 23, 1941, U. S. Code, (Supp. III), title 47, sec. 154 (f) (2).

¹⁷ Act of March 3, 1893, as amended, requiring a minimum of 7 hours work a day, exclusive of Sundays and holidays in the departmental service (U. S. Code, title 5, sec. 29); and the Saturday half-holiday law of March 3, 1931 (U. S. Code, title 5, sec. 26(a)). "The proposed establishment of a 40-hour basic work week would naturally encourage the establishment, administratively, of basic work weeks of 5 days of 8 hours each, as has been done for the postal service and for mechanical crafts, trades, and labor groups in navy yards, ordnance establishments, and other industrial plants of the Government." House Report No. 726, 79th Congress, June 8, 1945, p. 7.

¹⁸ U. S. Civil Service Commission, *Regulations under the Federal Employees Pay Act of 1945*, Departmental Circular No. 529, June 30, 1945, p. 1.

The early distinction thus drawn in the federal service between white-collar groups and crafts and labor groups was a counterpart of that found in industry prior to the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938.²⁴ The Fair Labor Standards Act has since established a general policy in industry that white-collar workers, with certain exceptions, shall, for work in excess of 40 hours a week, be paid at time-and-one-half rates.²⁵

Beginning in 1940 a series of temporary wartime statutes was enacted for the federal service to authorize extra payment for overtime work in excess of 40 hours a week performed by salaried employees in specified occupational groups in the Navy Department, Coast Guard, War Department, The Panama Canal, U. S. Maritime Commission, and the National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics.

The limited application of these statutes caused widespread inequities and dissatisfaction. Following a recommendation by the Civil Service Commission, the Congress on December 22, 1942, enacted a comprehensive overtime pay law for salaried workers, effective from December 1, 1942, to April 30, 1943. It was then replaced by the War Overtime Pay Act of 1943, effective from May 1, 1943, to June 30, 1945.²⁶

THE FEDERAL EMPLOYEES PAY ACT OF 1945 superseded the War Overtime Pay Act of 1943. The new law, effective July 1, 1945, establishes for the first time a permanent policy that extra pay shall be granted to salaried employees for overtime service. Overtime is identified as all work in excess of 40 hours a week, whether regularly scheduled or worked irregularly or occasionally. However, overtime service is not compensable if it is purely voluntary. Payment is authorized only when overtime work is "officially ordered or approved," i.e., ordered in advance or approved by the proper official after the work is per-

formed.²⁷ The new law also makes a sharp distinction between basic pay and overtime pay and between basic work periods and overtime service.

Under the War Overtime Pay Act of 1943, most salaried employees worked a regular schedule with a fixed number of overtime hours each week. Their basic annual pay, under the 1906 statute mentioned previously, was apportioned over 360 days, including workdays and nonworkdays. To simplify payroll procedure, overtime pay was calculated for an entire year and then prorated over 360 days. Thus the lack of correspondence between pay and time worked inherent in the 1906 law was extended to the payment of overtime. The result was a lack of emphasis upon, and an unconscious failure to appreciate, the distinction between basic pay and overtime pay and between basic work periods and overtime work periods.

The mixing of ideas was further fostered by the fact that the two general overtime pay statutes in effect prior to the new law both provided for "additional compensation in lieu of overtime compensation," to be paid to certain employees who were not required to work overtime, or whose overtime earnings for any pay period did not amount to \$300 a year. This led the Comptroller General to remark that "the proper concept of the law [of December 22, 1942] based upon all of its provisions . . . is that an increase in compensation is authorized . . . because of the war emergency and the increased cost of living."²⁸

As previously pointed out, basic annual rates under the new law are payment for fifty-two 40-hour basic workweeks. Hence, overtime pay is calculated on an actual basis by the week. The new law has thus brought about an awareness of what part of an employee's "take-home" compensation is pay for work during a basic 40-hour week and what part is pay for regular overtime service on the sixth day (usually Saturday), or for irregular or occasional overtime work on other days.²⁹

²⁴ Personnel Classification Board, *Report of Wage and Personnel Survey*, H. Doc. No. 602, 70th Cong., 2d sess., 1929; "Overtime Work by Salaried Employees," *Personnel*, August, 1937, pp. 90-93.

²⁵ Act of June 25, 1938, U. S. Code, title 29, secs. 207, 213.

²⁶ Act of May 7, 1943, U. S. Code (Supp. IV), title 50, Appendix, secs. 1401-1415. A description of the contrasts in 1944 between different segments of the service in respect to overtime pay will be found in the author's article, "Federal Overtime Pay Policies," *Personnel Administration*, November, 1944, pp. 1-5.

²⁷ 22 Comp. Gen. 745, 749, February 4, 1943.

²⁸ 22 Comp. Gen. 683, 685, January 21, 1943.

²⁹ A new pay procedure, now being installed in various agencies, provides the employee with a salary statement each time his pay status changes, showing for the first bi-weekly pay period under his new status: (a) regular basic salary, (b) overtime pay, (c) retirement deduction, (d) income tax deduction, (e) war bond deduction, and (f) net amount paid.

This clarification has an impact upon the administration of other laws, particularly those relating to leave of absence. To illustrate, under the War Overtime Pay Act of 1943, an employee taking leave with pay on *any* day lost no overtime pay for the week. Overtime pay was in this respect treated the same as basic pay. Under the Federal Employees Pay Act of 1945, however, the basic workweek is distinct from the overtime period. The leave regulations limit the taking of leave with pay to days within the basic workweek, and when such leave is granted the employee's total pay for the week, including extra pay for any overtime service actually rendered, is not affected. If, however, he is absent during his regular overtime period, no charge can be made against his leave credits, and he receives no overtime pay for that week. This understandable rule—that an employee must work his scheduled overtime period in order to receive overtime pay—is well settled in similar situations affecting crafts, trades, and labor groups paid for overtime under another statute.³⁰

PERHAPS THE most striking change in overtime pay methods brought about by the new law has to do with overtime pay rates and computations. The War Overtime Pay Act of 1943 provided the following method of determining overtime hourly rates:

- (a) Straight time hourly rates were derived from annual rates by dividing by 2,880 (360 days x 8 hours), on the principle established by the Act of June 30, 1906, that an annual rate is basic payment for 360 days.
- (b) Overtime hourly rates were computed by multiplying these straight time hourly rates by one and one-half.
- (c) Only that part of an annual rate not in excess of \$2,900 could be used.

Under these requirements, an employee who worked a regular 48-hour week (416 overtime hours annually) earned in overtime pay 21.67 per cent of that part of his basic annual rate not in excess of \$2,900—that is, for working 20 per cent more than 40 hours a week, he received a maximum of 21.67 per cent more pay. The overtime rate was thus actually no higher than time and one-twelfth (21.67 divided by 20), rather than time and one-half.

It was the purpose of the Federal Employees Pay Act of 1945 to change the method of computing overtime pay for salaried employees so as to provide true time-and-one-half rates, subject to the limitations of national salary stabilization policy and reasonable costs. The new law provides two sets of overtime rates applicable, respectively, to basic rates below \$2,980 per annum and to basic rates of \$2,980 per annum or more. For employees receiving basic compensation at a rate less than \$2,980 a year, the overtime hourly rate is computed by dividing the annual rate by 2,080 and multiplying the quotient by 1½. For this group, accordingly, overtime is computed at true time-and-one-half rates. For employees receiving basic compensation of \$2,980 or more, a specific schedule of overtime rates based on 416 overtime hours (8 hours a week for 52 weeks) is provided in the new law. (See Table II.) This sliding scale is based on (a) the government's practice in analogous situations in industry under the salary stabilization program, and (b) the maintenance of the overtime rate of \$628.33 a year (416 overtime hours) established under previous law for the highest brackets.

TABLE II. SLIDING SCALE OF NEW OVERTIME RATES FOR POSITIONS PAYING \$2980 AND ABOVE.

Basic Annual Rate	Annual Overtime Rate *	Basic Annual Rate	Annual Overtime Rate *
\$2,980	\$894.00	\$4,410	\$784.202
3,090	885.554	4,520	775.756
3,200	877.108	4,630	767.310
3,310	868.662	4,740	758.864
3,420	860.216	4,850	750.418
3,530	851.770	4,960	741.972
3,640	843.324	5,070	733.526
3,750	834.878	5,180	725.080
3,860	826.432	5,290	716.634
3,970	817.986	5,400	708.188
4,080	809.540	5,510	699.742
4,190	801.094	5,620	691.296
4,300	792.648	5,730	682.850
		5,840	674.404
		5,950	665.958
		6,060	657.512
		6,170	649.066
		6,280	640.620
		6,390	632.174
		6,500	623.728
		6,610	615.282
		6,720	606.836
		6,830	598.390
		6,940	589.944
		7,050	581.498
		7,160	573.052
		7,270	564.606
		7,380	556.160
		7,490	547.714
		7,600	539.268
		7,710	530.822
		7,820	522.376
		7,930	513.930
		8,040	505.484
		8,150	497.038
		8,260	488.592
		8,370	480.146
		8,480	471.700
		8,590	463.254
		8,700	454.808
		8,810	446.362
		8,920	437.916
		9,030	429.470
		9,140	421.024
		9,250	412.578
		9,360	404.132
		9,470	395.686
		9,580	387.240
		9,690	378.794
		9,800	370.348
		9,910	361.902
		10,020	353.456
		10,130	345.010
		10,240	336.564
		10,350	328.118
		10,460	319.672
		10,570	311.226
		10,680	302.780
		10,790	294.334
		10,900	285.888
		11,010	277.442
		11,120	268.996
		11,230	260.550
		11,340	252.104
		11,450	243.658
		11,560	235.212
		11,670	226.766
		11,780	218.320
		11,890	209.874
		12,000	201.428
		12,110	192.982
		12,220	184.536
		12,330	176.090
		12,440	167.644
		12,550	159.198
		12,660	150.752
		12,770	142.306
		12,880	133.860
		12,990	125.414
		13,100	116.968
		13,210	108.522
		13,320	100.076
		13,430	91.630
		13,540	83.184
		13,650	74.738
		13,760	66.292
		13,870	57.846
		13,980	49.400
		14,090	40.954
		14,200	32.508
		14,310	24.062
		14,420	15.616
		14,530	7.170
		14,640	0.000
		14,750	0.000
		14,860	0.000
		14,970	0.000
		15,080	0.000
		15,190	0.000
		15,300	0.000
		15,410	0.000
		15,520	0.000
		15,630	0.000
		15,740	0.000
		15,850	0.000
		15,960	0.000
		16,070	0.000
		16,180	0.000
		16,290	0.000
		16,400	0.000
		16,510	0.000
		16,620	0.000
		16,730	0.000
		16,840	0.000
		16,950	0.000
		17,060	0.000
		17,170	0.000
		17,280	0.000
		17,390	0.000
		17,500	0.000
		17,610	0.000
		17,720	0.000
		17,830	0.000
		17,940	0.000
		18,050	0.000
		18,160	0.000
		18,270	0.000
		18,380	0.000
		18,490	0.000
		18,600	0.000
		18,710	0.000
		18,820	0.000
		18,930	0.000
		19,040	0.000
		19,150	0.000
		19,260	0.000
		19,370	0.000
		19,480	0.000
		19,590	0.000
		19,700	0.000
		19,810	0.000
		19,920	0.000
		20,030	0.000
		20,140	0.000
		20,250	0.000
		20,360	0.000
		20,470	0.000
		20,580	0.000
		20,690	0.000
		20,800	0.000
		20,910	0.000
		21,020	0.000
		21,130	0.000
		21,240	0.000
		21,350	0.000
		21,460	0.000
		21,570	0.000
		21,680	0.000
		21,790	0.000
		21,900	0.000
		22,010	0.000
		22,120	0.000
		22,230	0.000
		22,340	0.000
		22,450	0.000
		22,560	0.000
		22,670	0.000
		22,780	0.000
		22,890	0.000
		23,000	0.000
		23,110	0.000
		23,220	0.000
		23,330	0.000
		23,440	0.000
		23,550	0.000
		23,660	0.000
		23,770	0.000
		23,880	0.000
		23,990	0.000
		24,100	0.000
		24,210	0.000
		24,320	0.000
		24,430	0.000
		24,540	0.000
		24,650	0.000
		24,760	0.000
		24,870	0.000
		24,980	0.000
		25,090	0.000
		25,200	0.000
		25,310	0.000
		25,420	0.000
		25,530	0.000
		25,640	0.000
		25,750	0.000
		25,860	0.000
		25,970	0.000
		26,080	0.000
		26,190	0.000
		26,300	0.000
		26,410	0.000
		26,520	0.000
		26,630	0.000
		26,740	0.000
		26,850	0.000
		26,960	0.000
		27,070	0.000
		27,180	0.000
		27,290	0.000
		27,400	0.000
		27,510	0.000
		27,620	0.000
		27,730	0.000
		27,840	0.000
		27,950	0.000
		28,060	0.000
		28,170	0.000
		28,280	0.000
		28,390	0.000
		28,500	0.000
		28,610	0.000
		28,720	0.000
		28,830	0.000
		28,940	0.000
		29,050	0.000
		29,160	0.000
		29,270	0.000
		29,380	0.000
		29,490	0.000
		29,600	0.000
		29,710	0.000
		29,820	0.000
		29,930	0.000
		30,040	0.000
		30,150	0.000
		30,260	0.000
		30,370	0.000
		30,480	0.000
		30,590	0.000
		30,700	0.000
		30,810	0.000
		30,920	0.000
		31,030	0.000
		31,140	0.000
		31,250	0.000
		31,360	0.000
		31,470	0.000
		31,580	0.000
		31,690	0.000
		31,800	0.000
		31,910	0.000
		32,020	0.000
		32,130	0.000
		32,240	0.000
		32,350	0.000
		32,460	0.000
		32,570	0.000
		32,680	0.000
		32,790	0.000
		32,900	0.000
		33,010	0.000
		33,120	0.000
		33,230	0.000
		33,340	0.000
		33,450	0.000
		33,560	0.000
		33,670	0.000
		33,780	0.000
		33,890	0.000
		34,000	0.000
		34,110	0.000
		34,220	0.000
		34,330	0.000
		34,440	0.000
		34,550	0.000
		34,660	0.000
		34,770	0.000
		34,880	0.000
		34,990	0.000
		35,100	0.000
		35,210	0.000
		35,320	0.000
		35,430	0.000
		35,540	0.000
		35,650	0.000
		35,760	0.000
		35,870	0.000
		35,980	0.000
		36,090	0.000
		36,200	0.000
		36,310	0.000
		36,420	0.000
		36,530	0.000
		36,640	0.000
		36,750	0.000
		36,860	0.000
		36,970	0.000
		37,080	0.000
		37,190	0.000
		37,300	0.000
		37,410	0.000
		37,520	0.000
		37,630	0.000
		37,740	0.000
		37,850	0.000
		37,960	0.000
		38,070	0.000
		38,180	0.000
		38,290	0.000
		38,400	0.000
		38,510	0.000
		38,6	0.000

an increase in total income as a result of overtime pay, some increase in pay could be granted to "exempted" supervisors and administrators in order to maintain proper minimum differentials between interrelated job classifications—e.g., between the pay rates of supervisors and the pay rates of those they supervise.³¹

The adjustments usually authorized in such situations have been (a) to pay to first line supervisors whose basic pay is not greater than that of the highest hourly rated employee additional compensation at the same overtime rate as the highest hourly rated employee receives, and (b) to pay to higher supervisors or others in the higher brackets additional compensation on a gradually decreasing scale.³²

THE OVERTIME PAY SCHEDULE presented in Table II was developed by computing the degree of taper (ratio of reduction of overtime rate to increase in basic rate) necessary to reduce the overtime rate of \$894 for 416 overtime hours at \$2,980 a year, to a rate of \$628.33 at \$6,440 a year. The computation gives a taper factor of .076782.³³ Thus, the overtime rate for 416 hours for each basic annual rate between \$2,980 and \$6,440 is determined by subtracting from \$894 (the overtime rate at \$2,980) .076782 of the amount by which such basic rate exceeds \$2,980.³⁴

The net result is that for salaries of \$2,980 a year and less the overtime rate is time and one-half. Beginning with \$2,980, the overtime rate is reduced continuously down to straight time at about \$4,080. From that point on the employee receives less than straight time until an overtime rate of slightly less than one-half straight time is reached at \$6,440. At and above that salary, the same dollar amount of overtime pay applies—\$628.33 for 416 overtime hours.

³¹ Treasury Department Press Release No. 37-31, July 1, 1943; see also "Additional Compensation for Supervisors," *The Management Review*, July, 1943, pp. 273-75; "Overtime Pay for Supervisors," National Industrial Conference Board *Management Record*, August, 1943, pp. 338-40; "Overtime for Supervisors," *Personnel*, September, 1943, pp. 60-61; *Policies in the Adjustment of Wage Rates*, Industrial Relations Section, Princeton University (April, 1941), p. 5.

³² *Code of Federal Regulations*, title 32, chap. XVIII, subchap. A, sec. 4001.11 (b).

³³ $\frac{\$894.000 - \$628.333}{\$6440 - \$2980} = .076782$

³⁴ For example, the overtime rate (416 hours) at \$4,300 is computed as follows: $\$894 - [.076782 \times (\$4,300 - \$2,980)] = \792.648 .

Overtime compensation, however, like all pay increases under the new law, is subject to the limitation that no employee, by reason of any provision of the Act, shall receive an aggregate rate of more than \$10,000 per annum for any pay period. Thus, the maximum amount of overtime pay that may be earned by a \$9,800 employee is \$200 a year.³⁵

One other feature of the overtime pay plan may be of interest. When irregular or occasional overtime is worked in excess of 48 hours a week, compensatory time off in lieu of overtime pay for such overtime service may be granted if requested by the employee. If time off is not requested the overtime is paid for in money.

MERIT INCREASES

THE CLASSIFICATION ACT of 1923, as amended, contains compensation schedules constructed in the form of services and grades.³⁶ To each grade, or zone of difficulty and responsibility of work, there is attached, in most instances, a statutory salary range consisting of a minimum rate, a maximum rate, and either three, four, or five intermediate rates. The increments between these rates are \$72, (in Grade 1 of the Crafts, Protective, and Custodial Service only), \$66, \$110, \$220, \$210, and \$262.50. Table III shows the construction of salary ranges for the Clerical, Administrative, and Fiscal Service.

TABLE III. NEW CLERICAL, ADMINISTRATIVE, AND FISCAL SERVICE PAY RANGES

Grade	Minimum	Maximum	Spread	Number of Rates	Increment
CAF 1	\$1506	\$1902	\$396	7	\$66
2	1704	2100	396	7	66
3	1902	2298	396	7	66
4	2100	2496	396	7	66
5	2320	2980	660	7	110
6	2650	3310	660	7	110
7	2980	3640	660	7	110
8	3310	3970	660	7	110
9	3640	4300	660	7	110
10	3970	4630	660	7	110
11	4300	5180	880	5	220
12	5180	6020	840	5	210
13	6230	7070	840	5	210
14	7175	8225	1050	5	262.50
15	8750	9800	1050	5	262.50

³⁵ A proviso, however, guards against reductions in June 30, 1945, aggregate compensation under certain circumstances.

³⁶ For an explanation of "services" and "grades" in a position-classification plan, see *Position-Classification in the Public Service*, A Report Submitted . . . by the Committee on Position-Classification and Pay Plans, Ismar Baruch, Chairman. Chicago: Civil Service Assembly, 1941, pp. 205-14.

The use of intermediate and maximum rates is subject to a merit increase—or “within-grade salary advancement” plan—originally authorized in 1941, and modified in some respects by the Federal Employees Pay Act of 1945.³⁷ Under this plan there are two kinds of within-grade advancements: (a) periodic advancements and (b) rewards for superior accomplishment. An employee becomes eligible for a periodic advancement to the next step in his grade when the following conditions prevail: (a) he has not attained the maximum rate of his grade; (b) he has a current efficiency rating of at least “Good,” or fully satisfactory; (c) he has served a waiting period of either 12 months, if the increments are less than \$200 a year, or 18 months, if they are \$200 or more; (d) he has not received by promotion or other action an equivalent increase³⁸ during such waiting period; and (e) his service and conduct are certified by his agency as otherwise satisfactory.

The Federal Employees Pay Act of 1945 shortens the previous waiting periods of 18 and 30 months to 12 and 18 months, respectively. It provides that after all the conditions of eligibility have been met, the employee shall receive the within-grade salary advancement at the beginning of the following pay period, rather than at the beginning of the next quarter, as specified in the prior law. It also permits an employee with a “Good,” or fully satisfactory, efficiency rating to advance periodically to the maximum rate of the grade. Under the prior law, a rating higher than “Good,” or fully satisfactory, was required to advance beyond the middle rate of the grade. Finally, it amends the periodic within-grade advancement plan to make sure that when a veteran is reemployed in the federal service under any applicable authority of law or civil-

service regulation, he will receive credit under the within-grade salary advancement law for his military service, and that he will not lose any within-grade salary advancements because of his absence in the military service. The same amendment applies to those who left their positions to serve in the Merchant Marine or on war transfer, as defined by the Civil Service Commission.

PREVIOUS LAW permitted, within any one waiting period, one additional within-grade salary advancement for “especially meritorious” service. There was no method of rewarding sustained superior performance unless it was so outstandingly distinctive as to be classed as “especially meritorious.” Of the approximately 1,220,000 employees involved, only 950 received such within-grade salary advancements in the fiscal year 1942; only 1,575 in the fiscal year 1943; and only 808 in the fiscal year 1944.

The new law authorizes one within-grade salary advancement for superior accomplishment, in addition to any periodic increase, within any one waiting period under standards to be promulgated by the Civil Service Commission.

According to these standards, a reward for superior accomplishment, in the form of an additional within-grade salary advancement, is to be given only for “sustained work performance,” a “beneficial suggestion,” or “special service.” When an employee has executed the duties and responsibilities of his official position in such an exceptional manner that his performance is demonstrably superior, not only to position requirements but also to the performance achieved by most employees in like positions, he may qualify under the sustained work performance provision. Such performance must not only merit the highest efficiency rating, but must also be distinctive otherwise. The beneficial suggestion advancement may be available, when an employee has initiated and developed a new idea, method, or device which has been adopted because it is expected to improve the public service or provide for more economical operation in the public interest. An advancement for special service may be made when an employee has performed in the public interest an act or serv-

³⁷ With respect to merit increase plans approved by the National War Labor Board for industry, see the Board's General Order No. 31, *Code of Federal Regulations*, title 29, sec. 803.31; *Instructions to Regional Boards and Industry Commissions*, September 21, 1944; *National Wage Policies and Problems*, American Management Association, Personnel Series No. 70 (1943); “Progressions Within Rate Ranges,” *Lawyers Guild Review*, July-August, 1944, pp. 26-33, September-October, 1944, pp. 35-39; National Industrial Conference Board Management Record, November, 1944, p. 324.

³⁸ The effect of an “equivalent increase” is to cause a new waiting period to begin. The Federal Employees Pay Act of 1945 stipulates that the increase in existing basic rates of compensation which it provides shall not be considered an “equivalent increase.”

ice of an unusual or distinctive character, over and above the normal job requirements.

The authority of prior approval of these special increments is vested in the Civil Service Commission, but the Commission is expressly empowered to delegate to the head of a department or agency, or his designated representative, the authority to act initially under the standards, subject to post audit by the Commission for compliance with such standards. The Commission's responsibility is to insure that any within-grade salary increases made in addition to periodic increases are made only on the basis of definite evidence of superior accomplishment, and that they do, in fact, constitute a reward for superior performance. If the Commission's standards are not observed, the Commission is authorized to withdraw the delegated authority from the agency concerned. The law requires the Commission to report to Congress annually on the number and types of rewards for superior accomplishment granted under this authority.

MINIMUM OR HIRING RATES

THE SERVICES AND GRADES of the Classification Act of 1923 were originally constructed 22 years ago. At that time the organization of the federal government and its constituent executive departments and agencies was much simpler than it is today. In recent years, the development of organization structure for the administration of new programs and the prosecution of the war has resulted, within many agencies, in finer divisions of activities, greater distribution of functions, wider delegations of responsibilities, and more intermediate levels of authority and administration. At present, in many large organizations there are actually more distinct levels of responsibility than can be reflected by using all the grades in the classification schedules of the statute. The result is that, in the higher as well as in the lower grades, positions among which there are measurable differences in responsibility are sometimes allocated to a single grade.

Notwithstanding this situation, the law, until July 1, 1945, fixed the minimum rate of the grade as the minimum or hiring rate for each class of positions in the grade. The one exception of this general rule, authorized in section

8 of the War Overtime Pay Act of 1943, and mentioned below, was of too limited a scope to change the general situation.

The Classification Act already provided, in accordance with standard position-classification practice, for the subdivision of grades into classes by the Civil Service Commission, according to the duties and responsibilities of positions. The new law adds to this authority the power to establish for any such class a minimum rate higher than the minimum rate of the grade. The new minimum rate, which will apply both to present employees in that class and to new appointees, must be one of the standard rates of the grade, and must not exceed the middle rate of the established statutory salary range for the grade. Furthermore, this action is to be taken only upon a finding of the Commission that it is warranted by the nature of the duties and responsibilities of the class of positions, in comparison with those of other classes in the same grade. The action also must be in the interests of good administration.

The Commission is also authorized to take this type of action whenever necessary in order to eliminate or reduce serious pay inequities caused by differences in pay levels of Classification Act employees and prevailing wage employees in the same government organization and at the same location. This is an extension and a broadening of a similar authority previously possessed by the Commission under Section 8 of the War Overtime Pay Act of 1943, which was used to eliminate or reduce pay inequities between Classification Act supervisors at certain field installations and wage-schedule employees whom they supervised. Any revisions of minimum rates ordered by the Commission, with the reasons therefor, are required to be reported to Congress at the end of each fiscal year.

NIGHT PAY DIFFERENTIAL

THE PURPOSE of a night pay differential is to compensate employees for working at undesirable hours and, in some measure, for the dislocation of their normal living habits and for inconvenience and extra expense. To some degree, the payment of a night differential overcomes some of the difficulties inherent in recruiting personnel for night shifts. In private

industry, the payment of night differentials is rather common.³⁹

At present, about 90,000 federal employees in salaried positions subject to the Classification Act of 1923 work during night hours in building and plant protection, cleaning, operation, and maintenance; in hospital service; in guard service in institutions; in communications and mail service; and in a wide variety of operations performed at night in order to make double use of mechanical equipment or office space.

Prior to adoption of the Federal Employees Pay Act of 1945, such employees were paid the same rates as other employees doing the same kinds of work during normal hours.⁴⁰ Other federal groups, however, received the benefits of night pay differentials authorized by law or by administrative regulation. Among these were many crafts, trades, and labor groups paid according to prevailing practices in private industry; certain groups in the Postal Service; and processing employees of the Bureau of Engraving and Printing.⁴¹

Provisions of the Federal Employees Pay Act of 1945, patterned after a corresponding provision for postal employees enacted in 1928, authorize a 10 per cent increase in pay for work performed between 6 P. M. and 6 A. M. on a regularly scheduled tour of duty—i.e., during the employee's 40-hour basic workweek. The differential is not a part of basic pay, does not apply when the employee is on leave, and is not included in computing any overtime compensation to which the employee may be entitled.

HOLIDAY PAY

EIGHT DAYS are recognized as holidays by federal statute: New Year's Day, Washington's Birthday, Memorial or Decoration Day, Independence Day, Labor Day, Armistice

Day, Thanksgiving Day, and Christmas Day.⁴² Days or parts of days on which departments and agencies are closed by executive order are treated in the same way as statutory holidays for pay purposes.

In normal times, holidays are nonworkdays for the great majority of federal employees. Authorized absence from work solely because of the occurrence of a nonwork holiday, like absence on any nonworkday established by statute or executive or administrative order, is not chargeable against the amount of leave allowed by federal statute,⁴³ and does not result in any deduction from the basic pay of a salaried employee.

By direction of the President, all holidays except Christmas were regular workdays during the war. For this service, no additional compensation was paid. Moreover, employees absent without approval on "work holidays" could be disciplined by the loss of one day's pay.⁴⁴ This was the general rule throughout the service, but exceptions existed. Certain classes of employees in the Postal Service are entitled either to extra pay or compensatory time off for holiday work.⁴⁵ Also, specified inspectional groups performing service on holidays for the benefit of a carrier, shipper, or other private interest are entitled to two days' extra pay for holiday work, for which the government is usually reimbursed.⁴⁶

With respect to war contractors in private industry, Executive Order No. 9240, issued by the President on September 9, 1942,⁴⁷ provided that employees of such contractors were to be paid at time and one-half rates for work performed on New Year's Day, Fourth of July, Labor Day, Thanksgiving Day, Christmas Day, and either Memorial Day or one other such holiday of greater local importance.

³⁹ Act of January 6, 1885, as amended, U. S. Code, title 5, sec. 86; Act of June 28, 1894, U. S. Code, title 5, sec. 87 (Labor Day); Act of July 28, 1916, as amended, U. S. Code, title 39, sec. 119 (Postal Service); Act of May 13, 1938, U. S. Code, title 5, sec. 87a (Armistice Day); Act of December 26, 1941, U. S. Code, title 5, sec. 87b (Thanksgiving Day).

⁴⁰ Act of March 14, 1936, as amended December 17, 1942, U. S. Code, title 5, sec. 30b; Act of March 2, 1940, U. S. Code, title 5, sec. 31b.

⁴¹ 21 Comp. Gen. 901, April 2, 1942.

⁴² U. S. Code, title 39, secs. 116, 118, 616; Act of July 1, 1944, Public Law No. 406, 78th Cong.; Act of July 6, 1945, Public Law No. 134, secs. 3, 16 (p).

⁴³ The authorizing statutes are cited in footnote 23 above.

⁴⁴ U. S. Code, Supp. III, title 40, sec. 326; "Holiday Pay under Order 9240", National Industrial Conference Board *Management Record*, August, 1943, p. 340.

³⁹ *Shift Practice in War Industry*, Studies in Personnel Practice No. 40, National Industrial Conference Board, 1942; Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Pay Differentials for Night Work Under Union Agreements*, Bulletin No. 478, H. Doc. No. 257, 78th Cong., 1st sess., 1943.

⁴⁰ To this general rule there was an exception covering employees under the Classification Act in the Office of the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office. Act of March 4, 1925, as amended, U. S. Code, title 44, sec. 75.

⁴¹ Postal Service, Act of May 24, 1928, as amended May 12, 1939, U. S. Code, title 39, sec. 828; Act of July 6, 1945 (Public Law No. 134, 79th Cong.), sec. 5; Bureau of Engraving and Printing, Act of July 1, 1944, Public Law No. 394, 78th Cong.

Out of this general wartime situation arose the question whether, when peace returned and holidays again became nonworkdays, those salaried employees who are required to work on holidays should receive extra pay therefor. This question is answered by the provisions of the Federal Employees Pay Act of 1945. The new law provides for extra compensation for working on a holiday when such holiday is not generally a workday in the federal service. A premium rate of one and one-half times the regular daily rate is established as the holiday rate, and this is to be paid in lieu of the regular rate. In other words, the extra compensation amounts to one-half day's pay. Such additional

pay will not apply when the employee is in a leave status and will not be part of basic pay for overtime pay computation purposes.

These provisions were scheduled to become effective upon the cessation of hostilities as proclaimed by the President, or upon a date that Congress might prescribe, or whenever the President should declare that holidays should not be generally work days in the federal service. On August 23, 1945, the President stipulated that the eight customary legal or public holidays should be observed as nonwork days. Hence, work on any such holiday will be compensated for at the premium rate specified in the new law.

Recruiting Administrative and Professional Personnel

WILLIAM C. ROGERS

October

THERE WAS A TIME not so long ago when of all the people in the world it was thought that a good stenographer was the most difficult to recruit. In their more sober moments, however, responsible executives, no matter how much they may suffer from writer's cramp, will agree that finding truly competent administrative and professional personnel is not only the most difficult but the most important of their recruiting problems.

As in the story of the blind men and the elephant, a definition of administrative and professional personnel depends somewhat on where you stand. The clerk may think of the head of the typing pool as an administrator if not an executive, while a member of the White House staff may give as examples members of the United States delegation to the latest Big Three conference. Here we are talking about bureau, division, and section heads in large agencies; department and assistant department heads in small organizations; and of highly trained and responsible lawyers, doctors, and social, physical, and biological scientists. The Reed Committee Report defines this group as "men to fill a specific position of responsibility for which mature experience, demonstrated ability, and effective personality are essential."¹

The subject is particularly timely now. With the end of the war, government faces a great test in the period of reconversion. Key positions can no longer be filled by anything short of the best available personnel if the people are to get the services they demand from their government. Many war service appointments will terminate and the widest competition will have to be offered for the posts. The personnel agency which does its recruiting well now will

prepare its organization for the big job facing government everywhere in the postwar era that we have now entered.

Of course, finding the right people for high level positions is always a matter of first importance and always difficult. It is important because administrative and professional personnel are at the top of the pyramid of responsibility in an organization and their leadership and example affect the efficiency of the whole staff and the whole program. Then, there is the sad saying, with a good deal of truth, that the public service can't compete easily with private business for administrative and professional personnel, while at the same time there is general recognition that public affairs call for the best kind of administration.

PROCEDURE MANUALS ARE NOT THE ANSWER

THERE IS NO simple answer to the problem, and there is certainly no set of rules to follow. (In fact, rigid rules are the worst answer.) The main requirements are rather a proper state of mind and frame of reference. First and foremost, the deep-seated, sometimes unconscious feeling that there is some onus to public employment must be dispelled from the mind of the recruiter and the recruit. The concept of government personnel administration must be a positive one. Second, it must be realized fully that administrative and professional personnel are different from ordinary personnel. The occupational stimuli to which they respond are different from those that motivate craftsmen, clerical workers, and members of the protective and custodial services. There is no violation of the tenet, "all men are created equal," in using a different approach in recruiting professional and administrative people. The search must be launched by people who know the manners and mores of this class of people and where they can be found.

¹ Report of President's Committee on Civil Service Improvement, 77th Cong., 1st Sess., H. Doc. 118, 1941, p. 86.

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Professional and administrative personnel attach great importance to their careers and have frequently made very considerable sacrifices to attain their present status. They do not work for bread alone, but for the satisfaction, the sense of service, and the feeling of prestige that their positions give them. They are often more interested in what a new position will contribute to their professional qualifications than they are in high pay and security of tenure. They are usually well educated, have broad interests, and their standard of living is high. They have a feeling of pride in their profession and are sensitive to the relative prestige of different organizations. It is important to instill a feeling of confidence in the importance and respectability of a position for which they are asked to apply. An announcement on the post office bulletin board inviting applicants to report at the recruiting office does not appeal to these people. Perhaps the technician doing recruiting for all classes can separate this type in his mind from the average employe, but usually he can't, and the result is highly unsatisfactory. Large personnel agencies have professional and administrative examining sections, but too often they are staffed by individuals who earned their spurs recruiting typists and haven't learned new ways. Then, too, the bulk of their work is in connection with subadministrative and subprofessional classes.

In most large personnel divisions, however, there are men and women who know where to find and how to approach administrative and professional people. They should be used for this duty and should be given the time to do a good job. Full use must be made of advice from the operating agency concerned. Such a placement is a painstaking procedure, a tailor-made affair, rather than a mass production process. In small personnel divisions the director should add this task to his own overburdened shoulders.

Job specifications should be written with great care and should be revised to conform with situations. It is not easy to describe adequately the work of an administrator. Central personnel agencies must fully understand the duties of an operating official and this information should be obtained from the line agency, from people holding similar positions,

and from outside administrative specialists. It is frequently dangerous to make too rigid requirements as to qualifications. The adjective "desired" should be substituted for "required" in setting down qualifications. A tight labor market, of course, requires less restrictive specifications. The object is to be able to consider a wide variety of backgrounds without flooding the agency with applications. Scientific positions, of course, can be described more easily in terms of duties and qualifications than the less tangible administrative positions.

Mr. Arthur Burton of the California State Personnel Board has written an excellent article in an earlier issue of this journal which serves as an example of the trials and tribulations of recruiting two types of professional employes—psychologists and psychiatrists.² Mr. Burton describes a survey that was made by his agency after nation-wide examinations had on two occasions failed to provide a single qualified eligible who was interested in accepting appointment. In the subsequent survey, inquiry was made about the experience of other state jurisdictions, from which valuable information was received about results in similar examinations and how they were obtained. This type of information should be gathered before announcing an examination so that it can be used in planning an adequate recruiting campaign. A request for names and addresses of people who applied for similar examinations in other jurisdictions, but for whom there is no possibility of appointment, should accompany this request for general information. These names could be circularized, saving a great deal of time and money. Indeed, cooperation among jurisdictions recruiting for administrative and professional personnel seems one of the most promising means of solving this difficult problem.

Mr. Burton also made an analysis of the labor market for psychologists and psychiatrists, a very valuable procedure for planning the right time for examinations, and for gauging the recruitment possibilities. For specialties in the physical and biological sciences the National Roster of Scientific and Specialized Personnel can give quite complete information, but for such elusive titles as "administra-

² Arthur Burton, "Recruiting Psychologists and Psychiatrists for the Public Service," *Public Personnel Review*, October, 1944, pp. 215-20.

tor" there is little information other than what can be obtained by an impressionistic survey.

CAREFUL PLANNING WILL PAY DIVIDENDS

BEFORE DISCUSSING specific techniques it is in point to suggest that all jurisdictions make broad plans well into the future for all professional and administrative recruiting. An audit may well be made of all positions of this type and general plans made for recruiting for those which seem the most difficult to fill and most likely to need detailed study. When it is possible without alarming staff members, their help should be enlisted in making the plans. Plans should be flexible, but they will afford insurance against starting from scratch at the crucial moment. "Positive recruitment anticipates demands for personnel rather than follows them."³

Needless to say, such factors as pay, working conditions, job location, and any special rewards obtainable must be considered in terms of each position in the early stages of a campaign. Mr. Burton mentions these factors as they apply to psychiatrists, but every case is different. Recruiting is a competitive process and it is important to know what the agency has to offer in comparison with other organizations. A frank appraisal of the relative competitive position should be obtained from an outside source familiar with the field in which recruiting is being done; it may be of immense help in setting up the position. Let it be said again and again that local residence requirements are anathema to professional and administrative personnel. The market here is national in the fullest sense. Such requirements, although often unavoidable, mean starting with two strikes against the program. Before limiting a position to men only, seek to ascertain whether there are also competent women in the particular field. The war has shown conclusively there are few jobs women can't do, and, what is more, they have unfortunately often had to do them for less money.

With the command and the strategy determined, the next step is public announcement of the examination. There are a number of direct means of finding applicants for administrative and professional positions. The

National Roster of Scientific and Specialized Personnel, previously mentioned, is the greatest source of names of professional and administrative personnel in the world and is sadly neglected by most public personnel agencies.⁴

The Roster has a file of some 700,000 personal history records covering nearly all of the biological and physical science specialties and a great number of the more highly developed social science specialties. An attempt has also been made to cover administrative skills, but since they are difficult to define, the attempt has been only partially satisfactory. The Roster uses a remarkable punch card system and can pick out anything from a Spanish-speaking serologist to a twenty-two-year-old Ph.D. in mathematics. Send full and specific information about the qualifications desired and the Roster will return a remarkable selection. The Roster probably deserves first place in the list of sources available to the personnel agency.⁵

The Personnel Exchange of Public Administration Clearing House has a file of several thousand records of people trained and experienced in the major fields of public administration. It is particularly valuable for the fields of general administration, welfare, finance, personnel, planning, housing, engineering, and research in the social and economic fields. It serves the fourteen organizations of public officials at 1313 East Sixtieth Street in Chicago and is so situated that it can readily seek aid from the staffs of these organizations in compiling lists of likely candidates when its assistance is sought in recruiting for vacancies. It is not a placement agency, but operates primarily as a service to public officials requesting suggestions for staff vacancies in their agencies.

PERSONNEL SERVICES BY PROFESSIONAL FIELDS

MANY ORGANIZATIONS offer personnel services in specific professional fields. These include the American Association of Social Workers, 130 East Twenty-Second Street, New York City; Engineer Societies Personnel Serv-

⁴ The Roster may be addressed at the Social Security Building, Washington 25, D. C.

⁵ The Administrative and Management Placement section of the Examining and Personnel Utilization Division of the United States Civil Service Commission will probably be another good source as the cut-backs in federal wartime activities make available experienced administrative personnel.

³ J. Donald Kingsley, "Recruitment—The Quest for Competence," *Public Personnel Review*, January, 1941, pp. 28-35.

ice, Inc., 8 West Fortieth Street, New York City (with offices in Chicago, Detroit, San Francisco and Boston); National Recreation Association, 315 Fourth Avenue, New York City; International City Managers' Association, 1313 East Sixtieth Street, Chicago, Illinois; American Library Association, 520 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago; and many others. If the previously mentioned audit of administrative and professional positions can be made, the pertinent organizations can be ascertained and listed for each position well in advance with full information concerning the nature of the services, publication dates, etc. In some cases a letter of inquiry to the organization asking for full information on services available would be advisable well in advance of the announcement.

Universities are good places to recruit for some types of individuals. Although students who have had no work experience are generally not useful for the types of positions described here, it is occasionally found that graduate students have returned to school for further training. Lists of pertinent graduate and professional schools can be obtained for many specialties. For example, The American Association of Schools of Social Work will send, on request its list of accredited schools of social work. The Committee on Public Administration of the Social Science Research Council publishes a directory of schools of public administration. The Social Science Research Council, 230 Park Avenue, New York City, can furnish information about universities offering instruction in the fields represented by its constituent societies—the American Economic Association, the American Anthropological Association, the American Historical Association, the American Political Science Association, the American Psychological Association, the American Sociological Society, and the American Statistical Association.

Two of the major avenues for publicizing an examination are through publicity and advertising in periodicals, and by direct mail. What publications will carry the announcement? Mass circulation publications will carry it if they have space at the bottom of one of the less important pages. Obviously this cheapens the whole process. The objective is to find

what special publications the prospective applicants read. Kingsley calls the process "selective recruiting."

THERE ARE two directories which contain information covering over 1,500 organizations in which professional and administrative people would be likely to hold memberships or through which they might be informed of examinations. One useful source of information about national organizations in the field of public administration is *Public Administration Organizations; A Directory of Unofficial Organizations in the Field of Public Administration in the United States and Canada*.⁶ More than 500 organizations of or for public officials and administrators, as well as professional and technical societies and citizen organizations, are listed with descriptive statements including addresses and publications. The organizations are classified by fields of activity and by states. Only a very few copies are now available for sale, but many large city, state, federal, and university libraries have this publication on their shelves.

The *Handbook of Scientific and Technical Societies of the United States and Canada*, published by the National Research Council and the National Academy of Sciences, Washington, D. C., is a directory of societies, associations, and similar organizations in the natural sciences and related fields.⁷ It includes a number of more general organizations and special institutions supporting scientific research as well as the constituent or affiliated societies of the three other national research councils of the United States—the American Council of Learned Societies, the American Council on Education, and the Social Science Research Council. The Handbook contains information on 1,269 organizations. It includes a subject index and a personnel index and gives the publications, personnel, and addresses of the organizations, along with other pertinent data. This publication is an essential work tool for every personnel agency recruiting administrative and professional personnel.

⁶ *Public Administration Organizations: A Directory, 1941*, with a 1943 Supplement. 5th ed. 187 pp. Chicago: Public Administration Clearing House.

⁷ National Research Council, *Handbook of Scientific and Technical Societies and Institutions of the United States and Canada*, 4th ed., Washington, D. C., January, 1942, 389 pp.

Other organizations publish similar lists of societies and associations in various fields, such as *The Educational Director*, published by the United States Office of Education, and *The List of American Foundations*, published by the Russell Sage Foundation. The social services are quite well covered in the Russell Sage Foundation's *Social Work Yearbook*. The list of societies affiliated with the American Public Health Association appear in each number of the *American Journal of Public Health*.

Other sources are professional men in your city (ask them what they read) and librarians (they are among our most useful citizens).⁸ In arranging for announcements in professional journals, it is most important to know the deadlines for receiving copy for publication and the publication date. If the announcement cannot appear in time to enable readers to reply, it does no good. Set the closing date in relation on the date on which the major periodical publication in the particular professional field will appear, after first having ascertained the editorial deadline on material proposed for publication in that issue.

As Mr. Burton has suggested in his article, many of these organizations have membership directories which can be circularized directly as a follow-up or if publication of the announcement is not possible. Sometimes such organizations will also send examination announcements directly to their members. Offer to send them as many copies as they can use, and if at all possible, send applications with announcements. It saves a great deal of time and energy and will result in more applications per announcement distributed.

ANOTHER TYPE of directory infrequently used are the directories of public officials published by many states and cities and by some private organizations. These include names and positions of all officials within the particular unit of government and are to be distinguished from membership lists of voluntary associations of public officials. Personnel directors of government jurisdictions as well as pertinent operating agencies should not be overlooked as sources of suggestions. With the ending of the war many federal agencies, par-

ticularly, are very eager to tell their employees who are to be separated about available positions.

Recruiting, of course, involves far more than composing an announcement, securing the proper names and addresses and seeing that the mailing is done at the proper time. Personal contact is by far the most effective means of inducing candidates to compete for appointments. It is here that it is most important to select a representative who understands the position and knows the type of individual required to fill it. A hundred small nuances of speech and manner make a surprising difference in successfully enlisting cooperation and interesting applicants. A successful administrator will show a great deal more interest and confidence in a position if he is approached by a person whom he recognizes as a professional equal, or as one who is well informed about the problems and duties of the administrator, than if he talks to a young and inexperienced clerk. The more traveling a recruiter can do and the more people he can find to act as his deputies in talking to individuals the better the chances are of a successful recruiting program.

In all stages of recruiting it is most advisable to have the advice of members of the community and staff members of the governmental jurisdiction who have some special knowledge of the occupation concerned. A panel of physicians will give a great number of suggestions otherwise unobtainable in recruiting medical personnel, and welfare administrators, engineers, lawyers, scientists, etc. can usually be found who will cooperate. Caution should, of course, be used in identifying the recruitment with any vested professional interests or prejudices. The United States Civil Service Commission has established in its regional offices committees on administrative personnel, drawn from leading members of various professions in the various areas, which committees are most valuable in giving suggestions in recruiting personnel.

There is some feeling that the supply of returning veterans will certainly fill all personnel needs and that finding personnel will now be easy. The great mass of servicemen are, however, very youthful and in the Army Air Force (the extreme example) 86 per cent of

⁸ See the excellent article by Henry J. McFarland, "Community Resources of Personnel Agencies," *Public Personnel Review*, January, 1944, pp. 1-7.

the men are no more than thirty years old, which is rather youthful for administrative and professional positions of large responsibility. The services are keeping many of their best officers, and many of the most highly skilled men in the Army Service Forces and the Air Forces may be retained as essential for some time. The Navy will not go back to its pre-war size. Nevertheless, many men will be rapidly discharged, and in some situations men can be specially released for positions important to the public interest. It is important to send announcements to men in the service, for it is quite possible that they may be available for appointment by the time the employer is in a position to make an actual offer of employment. The public relations aspect of this procedure is important too. Many men in the services feel that they have been forgotten as possibilities for positions.

THE FORM OF ANNOUNCEMENTS

A WORD ABOUT the form and content of the announcements. Unless a job specification is extremely well worded or the announcement must necessarily be exact, it is best to describe the position in rather general terms. A long and legalistic announcement may well be misunderstood by qualified applicants who misinterpret the specifications and feel that they are not qualified or that the position may not interest them. The wording of the announcement, like the specification itself, is a subject for the consideration of the operating division and other sources of expert advice.

The formal announcement should, of course, be attractive to the type of people to whom it is directed. Professional people are not inclined to show enthusiasm for a highly legalistic statement mimeographed on cheap paper, nor are they likely to be attracted by a document which resembles a summons much more than an invitation. It is to be remembered that the reader, in responding, is doing the agency a favor rather than the reverse. In some cases the best method would be to send a polite and dignified (not too dignified) letter on good stationery signed by the head of the agency. The letter could give the basic facts about the position and suggest that the reader write for more information if he is interested. Perhaps members of a panel or of your own

organization could sign letters to people they know on the list. There is no reason why public agencies cannot use some of the successful techniques adopted at least forty years ago by the advertising profession. Arrangements should be made to hold examinations, including oral interviews or tests, at convenient locations throughout the country in a nationwide examination; otherwise the term "nation-wide" is a parody.

SUMMARY

THE ARGUMENT for more attention to administrative and professional recruiting should be summed up again to give it a place high among the many pressing demands on the time of the personnel administrator and technician. Administrative and professional personnel determine in large measure how well an organization is administered. Good people in these positions will affect favorably the other employees by their personalities and methods. The gains in favorable public opinion, the public welfare, and the savings in money will repay a thousand times the time and effort spent in doing the best possible job of recruiting.

Personnel officers, by demonstrating real effectiveness in finding highly qualified administrative personnel, will find that the function of recruiting executive personnel to the very top rungs on the administrative ladder will fall increasingly to them rather than remaining a function of the top executive. Too often the personnel division has little or no voice in selecting executive personnel because top management does not feel the matter can be entrusted to personnel specialists. Therefore, it is frequently true that executive personnel are recruited in a haphazard manner without due regard to the whole personnel program of the agency and to approved personnel practices. The status of the personnel division in the agency can be raised very considerably by the demonstration of knowledge of the management needs of the organization through displaying an intelligent and informed approach to administrative and professional personnel recruiting. Above all, the people who are served by their government will be getting the kind of administration they must have, which is the very best.

Problems of Personnel Status in the United States Employment Service

ROBERT M. BARNETT AND HELEN F. HARRINGTON

ONE OF THE STEPS in the national defense program which followed close on the heels of Pearl Harbor was the nationalization of the several state employment services. This move, which became effective January 1, 1942, resulted in a program of personnel administration in the United States Employment Service which has been neither federal nor state in character, but rather a combination of both. The legal framework has been such as to require the personnel program for the Employment Service to be based on the wartime rules and regulations of fifty-one personnel jurisdictions—those of the United States Civil Service Commission and fifty state and territorial merit system and civil service agencies. Hence, in addition to the difficulties involved in the recruitment and retention of qualified personnel common to all organizations during wartime, the War Manpower Commission has had the task of developing policies and procedures in which the requirements of these varying and frequently conflicting personnel jurisdictions were meshed.

THE TRANSFER OF STATE PERSONNEL

THE EMPLOYEES affected by the transfer became federal employees on January 1, 1942, and, under the terms of Executive Order 8990, those who had state merit system status also acquired federal classified civil service status after completing six months' satisfactory service. In spite of this transfer to federal rolls, however, the Employment Service personnel continued to be paid on the basis of their respective state compensation plans. Executive Order 8990 provided that the positions in the USES, upon the determination of the Federal Security Administrator, would be brought

under the provisions of the Classification Act, as amended. However, before classification under the federal plan of the approximately 22,000 positions could be completed, Congress in the spring of 1942 included a provision in an appropriation act requiring a continued tie-in with the several state pay scales. This proviso, which has been included in each subsequent appropriation for the administration of the employment office facilities and services, reads as follows:

... no portion of the sum herein appropriated shall be expended by any federal agency for any salary to any individual engaged in employment service duties in any position within any local or field or state office, which substantially exceeds the salary which would apply to such position and individual if the relevant state merit system applied and if state operation of such office had continued without interruption.

Consistent with the terms of this legislation salaries paid USES employees, including salary advancements, have been determined by the applicable state compensation plan and the rules and regulations governing the administration of that plan. All other personnel actions have been based on federal civil service regulations.

Prior to January 1, 1942, the state employment offices were an integrated part of the state employment security agencies. Under the provisions of the Social Security Act, as amended, employees of these agencies must be covered by a merit system or state civil service system approved by the Social Security Board. The standards for approval by the Board, while defining certain minimum basic elements of merit system administration, are sufficiently flexible to permit adaptation to local conditions and requirements. The resulting variations among the states multiplied the perplexing questions which arose during the transition from state to federal operation.

*Problems of administration, particularly in

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respect to the protection of employees against loss of seniority, tenure, appeal, leave, and retirement rights, are inevitable whenever employees are transferred from one merit system jurisdiction to another. Although of the same type, the problems are obviously more complex when the transfer is from fifty existing and different systems to a single system which is a going concern of long standing and tradition. From the outset the personnel program for the USES has been directed toward doing everything possible to safeguard the rights and status of its employees. The problems that have occurred in trying to accomplish this objective have been further complicated by the fact that the period of nationalization has been of unknown duration. Uncertainty has even existed concerning the future disposition of the employment service, as evidenced by proposed legislation for permanent nationalization.

The War Manpower Commission has continuously negotiated with the United States Civil Service Commission for special interpretations and rulings where normal federal procedures did not meet the needs of personnel administration of the USES. In some instances, the problems could be met only by legislative action. For example, in order to protect employees from the loss of leave acquired under state employment, special legislation was recommended to Congress. As a result, a clause was included in the appropriation act permitting state leave to be carried over into federal service. Recommended legislation was introduced and is still pending to resolve certain problems concerning retirement.

SURVEY OF PERSONNEL PRACTICE

AS A BASIS for evaluating the application of this federal-state plan, the War Manpower Commission has recently completed an objective review of the personnel practices and the results of those practices in the USES during the three-year period of January 1, 1942, to December 31, 1944. The high degree of decentralization of both program and personnel administration in the War Manpower Commission made such a survey a major undertaking. The Chairman of the Commission has delegated to state and regional directors the appointing authority for practically all personnel in their jurisdictions. Personnel records

for USES employees are maintained in the state offices. The objectives and plans for the survey were discussed with representatives of state and regional offices and visits were made to several state offices to permit a sampling of records in the development of the questionnaire and work sheets. The survey was nationwide and covered all employees engaged in the employment service program in state, area, and local offices as of December 31, 1944. Schedules requesting information in both narrative and statistical form were completed by the state personnel officers and forwarded by the state manpower directors through the regional offices to Washington, where they were summarized and analyzed. The information was obtained from the basic personnel records maintained in the state War Manpower Commission offices, including individual employee files and service record cards.

The major subjects selected for coverage were recruitment and appointment procedures, including cooperation with state merit system and civil service agencies, administration of classification and compensation plans, salary advancement procedures, promotional practices, intra-agency transfers, and military leave rights of USES employees.

DISTRIBUTION OF USES PERSONNEL

ON A NATIONAL BASIS the number of employment service employees has not increased materially under federal administration. The total, 21,668, reported for December 31, 1944, represents an increase of less than 5 per cent over the group transferred from the states three years earlier. As might be expected, an analysis of the figures listed for individual states brings out the relationship between the size of USES staff and the general labor market problems of the area. Some states with critical labor shortages have had to increase local office personnel materially to carry out wartime functions. In at least four states, however, the size of staff has been considerably reduced.

Slightly more than half of the original group of state employment service employees taken over on January 1, 1942, are currently in the USES, in other parts of the War Manpower Commission, or on military furlough from Employment Service positions. This group, which might be expected to remain with, or return

to, the employment service program during the postwar period, may be increased somewhat by the return of employees who have transferred with reemployment rights to other federal agencies or to private industry. Approximately nine thousand former state employment security employees were included on the active personnel rolls of the USES on December 31, 1944.

FOR CONVENIENCE in analyzing types of personnel actions on an occupational basis in summarizing the survey data, all USES positions were divided into three broad groups:

Group A. Administrative, technical, and professional classes, including all nonclerical classes except Interviewers.

Group B. All classes carrying the title of Interviewer, and those additional classes for

which the specifications indicated that the major portion of the employee's time was spent in interviewing.

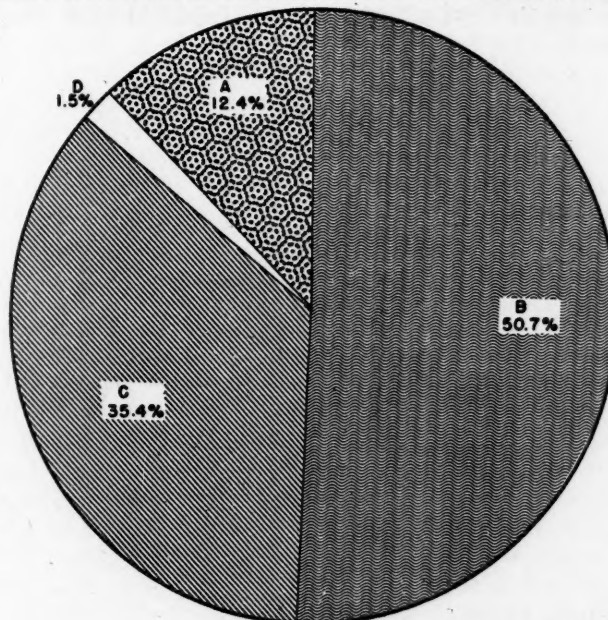
Group C. All clerical classes, including stenographers, typists, statistical and accounting clerks, as well as the general clerical classes.

Distributing employees as of December 31, 1944, among these three groups, we find that on a national basis about half of USES personnel was made up of Interviewers. The clerical group is next in size, including slightly over a third of the total, and the administrative, technical, and professional group includes approximately 12.5 per cent of the total.¹ Chart I shows this distribution pictorially and gives the exact figures and percentages for each group.

¹ A fourth small group, made up of custodial employees, accounts for the remaining personnel.

CHART I

**PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF USES STAFF
BY OCCUPATIONAL GROUPS AS OF DECEMBER 31, 1944**



A - 2,685 EMPLOYEES

B - 10,980 EMPLOYEES

C - 7,664 EMPLOYEES

D - 339 EMPLOYEES
21,668



A - ADMINISTRATIVE, TECHNICAL, & PROFESSIONAL CLASSES



B - INTERVIEWERS (ALL LEVELS)



C - CLERICAL CLASSES



D - CUSTODIAL

ELIGIBILITY FOR MERIT STATUS

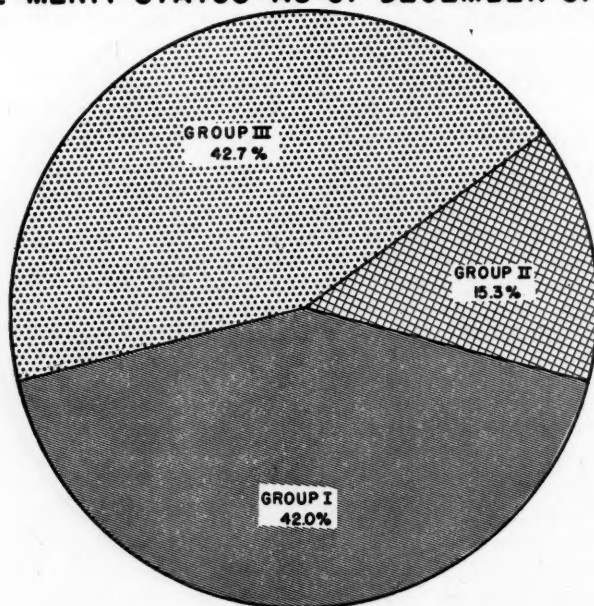
EXECUTIVE ORDER 8990, issued on December 23, 1941, provided that any employee of a state employment security agency might be appointed to a position in the federal employment service program and upon such appointment might acquire a classified civil service status, provided (1) that such employee was on the rolls of the state employment security agency at close of business December 31, 1941; (2) that he was previously approved for permanent or probational appointment, or within a six months' period beginning January 1, 1942, became eligible for such appointment under the rules of a state merit system previously approved by the Social Security Board; and (3) that he satisfactorily completed a six month probation period following the date of his induction into the federal service. The order further provided for the continued use

of state merit system registers, subject to such regulations as the United States Civil Service Commission might prescribe.

Since March 16, 1942, all appointments to the USES, other than the appointments of former state employment security employees specifically covered by provisions of Executive Order 8990, have been in accordance with war service regulations of the United States Civil Service Commission. In view of the expressed intent of Congress that the Employment Service be returned to state administration at some future date, the Civil Service Commission, in its regulations, has permitted under certain conditions the use of appropriate state merit system registers in recruiting for USES positions. These regulations, however, limit the use of state registers to those instances where state examination requirements and rating procedures conform to existing federal civil

CHART II

ELIGIBILITY OF TOTAL USES STAFF FOR STATE MERIT STATUS AS OF DECEMBER 31, 1944



GROUP I - 9,093 EMPLOYEES

GROUP II - 3,318 EMPLOYEES

 GROUP III - 9,257 EMPLOYEES
 21,668 EMPLOYEES


GROUP I - APPOINTED UNDER EXECUTIVE ORDER 8990



GROUP II - APPOINTED FROM STATE LISTS.



GROUP III - NOT APPOINTED FROM STATE LISTS

service policies. At present there are in many states two major differences between state merit system and federal civil service examining procedures: (1) the type of preference given to veterans and (2) the use of minimum educational and experience requirements as a condition for admission to examinations. Over the three-year period covered by the survey, other factors have hindered or prevented cooperation with state merit systems. In some cases, state registers were not available, and in other instances, the need for filling vacancies promptly was so great as to preclude adherence to the more complicated procedures necessary in the use of registers set up under either state or federal regulations. Nevertheless, in spite of these problems, arrangements were worked out in many of the states by the state manpower offices, the regional directors of the United States Civil Service Commission, and state merit system agencies for at least partial use of state registers. All but five states reported that either open competitive or promotional examinations for USES positions were held by state merit system agencies sometime during the three-year period covered by the survey. However, after the enactment of the Federal Veterans' Preference Act of 1944, which prohibits the use of absolute educational requirements in recruiting for positions in the federal service, the use of state lists has been materially curtailed. Such lists are currently in use in only a few states.

Employees appointed by selection from state registers since the nationalization of the services constituted about 15 per cent of the total USES staff as of December 31, 1944. Combining this group with the former state employees who had permanent or probational status at the time of federalization, it appears that on a national basis approximately 60 per cent of the USES staff have a claim to eligibility for state merit system status in the event of the return of the function to state administration. Chart II illustrates the distribution of the total Employment Service staff, as of December 31, 1944, in terms of eligibility for state merit status.

In a state-by-state analysis, we find the figures, both on former state employees and appointments from state lists, are subject to wide fluctuation. In one state the percentage

of former state employees with merit system status runs as high as 72 per cent of the current staff. When the employees appointed from state eligible lists are added to this group, the proportion of employees who have a claim to eligibility under the merit system of that state is increased to 85 per cent. At the other extreme, the percentage drops in one state to a low of less than a quarter of the total staff.

In general, the percentage with status under state merit systems runs much higher among administrative personnel than for the other occupational groups. It is lowest in the clerical classes. As might be expected, relatively few former state employees are found among the current clerical staff. Many have either been promoted to one of the other occupational groups shown in Chart II, or have been drawn away by more attractive salaries of war industries or federal positions under the Classification Act.

If the Employment Service is returned to state operation the extent to which eligibility will be recognized for state merit system status of any or all of these employees is a matter for state determination. Relatively few states have taken either legislative or administrative action to define clearly the rights of USES employees.

Examining the survey figures from the standpoint of eligibility of USES employees for federal civil service status, we find that 9,682, or approximately 45 per cent have classified status. In most cases, they are the former state employees who acquired their federal status under the terms of Executive Order 8990. The remaining group of approximately 12,000 hold war service appointments, from the point of view of the federal rules.

PROMOTIONS, TRANSFERS, AND LEAVE

AN ANALYSIS of promotion figures, staffing schedules, and turnover rate indicates that, in general, vacancies above the entrance level of clerical and interviewing positions have been filled by promotion rather than by appointment from outside the organization. The accompanying table is a summary of all promotions received by employees on the rolls December 31, 1944, during their total period of service with the USES. In compiling these figures a promotion has been defined as a per-

PROMOTIONS RECEIVED BY USES EMPLOYEES AS OF DECEMBER 31, 1944

Number of Promotions	Employees with Service of 2 Years or Less		Employees with Service of More than 2 Years		Total Staff USES	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
None	6,469	77.5	4,798	36.0	11,267	52.0
One	1,605	19.2	5,570	41.8	7,175	33.1
Two	250	3.0	2,392	17.9	2,642	12.2
Three	22	.3	491	3.7	513	2.4
Four	1	.01	64	.5	65	.3
Five	—	—	7	.1	7	.03
Total	8,347	100.0	13,322	100.0	21,669	100.0

sonnel action involving a change from one USES class to another USES class having a higher entrance salary. Salary increases resulting from salary advancements within the same class, upward revisions in salary ranges, or cost-of-living adjustments are not included in this table. Nor does this summary take into account employees who have moved from USES positions at state pay scales to War Manpower Commission positions covered by the Classification Act.

As the table indicates, the record under federal operations has been conservative, both in terms of the total number of employees promoted and the number of promotions received by a given employee. A comparison of the promotion figures for employees who have been in the USES more than two years with those for employees with less service shows a close relationship between length of service and selection for promotion. There is a decided contrast between the two groups both in the number of promotions received and the size of the group who have not been promoted. A further analysis covering the most recent group of appointments (employees with six months service or less) reveals that only 4 per cent of this group were promoted and none were promoted more than once.

Promotion Among Former State Employees. In the three-year period covered by the study there have been about 8600 promotions among the employees who were transferred to the federal pay roll under Executive Order 8990 and who are still on the rolls of the USES in positions paid in accordance with state pay scales. This figure represents an average of less than one promotion per employee in three years. The promotions were distributed among two-thirds of the group. Of those promoted, more than one-half received one promotion

and only 4 per cent of the total group covered by Executive Order 8990 were given more than two promotions.

It is surprising to find that, on a national basis, as many as one-third of this experienced group have not been promoted during the three-year period. From the reports of individual states, we find that this figure ranges from 3 per cent in two states to 65 per cent in two others. The geographic distribution of local offices is undoubtedly a significant factor in limiting both promotional opportunities and the availability of employees otherwise qualified for the promotion. To the extent that turnover and expansion factors have influenced the number of vacancies, they would, of course, also affect the number and distribution of promotions in a given group of employees.

A more detailed study of the promotions among the "8990's" on an occupational basis shows that slightly over 1800 of the employees who were clerks on January 1, 1942, have been advanced to interviewers or administrative positions. If we assume that the occupational distribution among USES employees was approximately the same three years ago as it is now, this figure would represent about one-fourth of the original group of clerical employees.

Promotions Meeting Both State and Federal Regulations. In some states, promotions have not only met the requirements of federal civil service regulations but have also been in accordance with state practice, even to the extent of being approved by the state merit system or civil service agency. In other states, practice has varied in respect to adherence to state regulations, and in a third group of states, state requirements have not been taken into account.

SALARY ADVANCEMENTS

SALARY ADVANCEMENTS received by USES employees are based on the provisions of state salary regulations applicable to state employment security employees. By salary advancements, we are referring to increases in salary within the salary range for the class which are generally given in recognition of both quality and length of service. The survey reports show that there has been general adherence to state practice, with a tendency in some regions to be more conservative in the number of advancements granted than is actually required under the regulations. On a national basis, about three out of every five employees received at least one increase during the calendar year 1944. The number receiving more than a one step increase averaged less than one out of every five employees. As might be expected, because of the differences among states in their regulations, individual state reports on pay increases showed even greater variation than the figures on other types of personnel actions. The percentage of employees receiving advancements of one or more steps ranged from 30 per cent in one state to 75 per cent in another.

As in the case of promotions, there is a definite relationship between length of service and eligibility for salary advancements. A comparison of the three years covered by the survey indicates that the number of advancements granted and the number of employees receiving such increases were somewhat higher in 1943 than in either of the other two years.

A STUDY OF personnel administration in the USES would not be complete without taking into account the number of personnel in state pay scale positions who have been transferred to War Manpower Commission positions covered by the Classification Act. There has been a total of 930 such transfers, of which two-thirds were former state employees. These transferees include some of the most experienced administrative and technical personnel of the employment service program.

Transfers Between States. The survey data also included statistics on transfers from a USES position in one state to a USES position in another state. The number of such cases proved to be amazingly small. As of Decem-

ber 31, 1944, the total of employees currently in the USES who have transferred from other states was 117. Of these, about two-thirds were transfers across regional lines, the remainder were between states in the same region. Thirty-four states reported personnel actions of this type.

Employees on Military Leave. As of December 31, 1944, the number of employees on military leave corresponded to about 13 per cent of the total USES staff. More than three-fourths of this group are former state employees, about 12 per cent of which entered military service prior to the nationalization and, hence, have reemployment rights under both state and federal regulations. As between states, the percentage of persons on military leave fluctuates from a low of 4 per cent to a high of 24 per cent. As a result of these findings, the War Manpower Commission personnel office has undertaken a more detailed analysis of problems relating to military leave so that a program for reemployment of veterans upon return from military service can be developed to insure reemployment without delay and in a type of work which will give full recognition to previous qualifications and to military experience. It may be noted that the proportion of persons on military furlough to the total number of USES positions is much higher among the administrative and interviewer classes than for the clerical group.

STATUS PROBLEMS

THE SURVEY has brought into focus a variety of personnel problems which present a challenge, both to top administrators and personnel technicians, in providing a continuing plan for personnel administration in the Employment Service. The act appropriating funds for administration of the program during the fiscal year 1946 included a provision for the return of the Employment Service to state operation 90 days after cessation of hostilities with Japan. On the other hand, Congress still has under consideration bills supported by various labor organizations and other groups which would continue federal administration. Hence, we cannot overlook the possibility of the establishment on a permanent basis of a system of federally administered public employment offices. Either action would lead to

simplification of personnel administration in that a program, which is currently a combination of federal and state practices, would either be brought completely under federal regulations or, on a state-by-state basis, would become subject to the regulations of the appropriate merit system or civil service system in each state. The transition to a personnel program which is completely state or completely federal, however, will present some of the most difficult problems to be met in the field of personnel administration.

War Service Appointments. From the standpoint of over-all administration, the problem of paramount importance centers around the war service appointee. What steps can be taken to assure continuity of operations and the maintenance of an adequate public employment service during the period required for the conversion of a staff approximately 60 per cent of which lacks permanent status under either federal or state regulations, to a staff appointed in complete accordance with the permanent regulations of the personnel agency to have continuing jurisdiction? The problem is given particular emphasis when it is recalled that, in the event of the return to state operation, the employment service personnel within each state on the last day of federal administration will include the following categories of employees:

1. Employees appointed to present positions by the state employment security administrator prior to January 1, 1942.

2. Employees appointed to present positions since January 1, 1942, in accordance with both federal and state rules. This group includes (a) persons transferred from the state employment security agency and subsequently promoted, transferred, or demoted; and (b) persons appointed to United States Employment Service from federally converted state eligible lists.

3. Employees appointed to present positions since January 1, 1942, under federal regulations without regard to state rules. This group includes (a) persons transferred from states with merit status and subsequently promoted, transferred, or demoted without regard to state merit system regulations; and (b) persons appointed to USES through recruitment sources other than state lists.

The distribution of employees among these categories will vary greatly among states. However, the survey data have indicated that the number falling under the first heading will be uniformly small; for some states and for some

occupational groups in other states, the figure will be zero. In many instances the largest group will be that described in category 3 (b). On the other hand, a significant number of the employees in the third general category will be found upon review by the state merit system or the civil service agency to have a claim to state eligibility. The analysis of all pertinent records covering employees in both groups 2 and 3, however, will be a time-consuming process. Still more time will be needed to hold examinations to enable former USES employees to establish eligibility for their positions and to set up registers from which new positions may be filled and replacements made for those employees who fail to qualify under state standards.

As state and federal administrators have become acquainted with the magnitude of this problem, there has been a growing recognition that some method must be found within the framework of state regulations and standards to permit former USES employees to continue in their current positions, without regard to merit system status, for an interim adjustment period. The duration of this period should be adequate to permit the central personnel agency to complete its verification of the status of the employees who have previously qualified under state examinations, or under standards substantially comparable, and to establish appropriate registers covering all positions in the agency. One state has already passed special legislation to provide a one-year adjustment period of this type. Certain other states could accomplish the same objective by administrative action.

RELATED QUESTIONS which must be answered concern the type of examinations to be given. Should former USES employees be given qualifying examinations in which outside competitors are barred, or should examinations be on an open and competitive basis, with no preference shown the employees who may have been successfully performing the functions of their positions for as long as three years? A possible solution lies in a compromise between these extremes under which, in open competitive examinations, minimum qualifications would be waived for personnel currently in the positions and additional credit

allowed for in-service experience in the rating of education and experience. In deciding these questions the state must consider the weight to be given the advantages of retaining experienced personnel against the feasibility of comparing their qualifications, through the process of open competition, with those of veterans and others who will be currently available for public employment.

The problems posed in the event of permanent federalization would present certain difficulties, too. In common with all other federal agencies, the administrator responsible for the Employment Service would no doubt be expected to make recommendations to the Civil Service Commission as a basis for major policy decisions affecting war service appointments in the federal service as a whole. These recommendations might include items such as the duration of war service appointments, timing of examinations in relation to availability of applicants and possible program disruption, and the principles to be followed in planning examinations which would meet program needs and at the same time carry out the intent and requirements of the Veterans' Preference Act. In relation to each of these items, certain problems would arise which were peculiar to the Employment Service. For example, on the timing of examinations little could be done until the jobs were classified under the federal plan. The difficulties of this undertaking are outlined in the following section.

CLASSIFICATION AND COMPENSATION

IN THE EVENT of return to state administration the appointing authorities and central personnel agencies will be faced with a major task in classification and pay administration. During the period of federal administration the revisions of classification plans needed to reflect changing employment service functions have in a few states been incorporated in the classification plan of the state employment security agency at the time of their adoption by the War Manpower Commission. This has not been the general pattern, however. In a number of states the unemployment compensation administrator, or the agency responsible for the maintenance of classification, has indicated concurrence with the USES revision but has taken no official action to make the revision

part of the over-all state plan. Some state administrators have considered the change in the employment service program as temporary and hence inappropriate for incorporation in the state plans. Certain of the wartime functions will, of course, disappear. Other functions, as illustrated by the counseling program and the positions of local veterans' employment representatives, required under the Servicemen's Readjustment Act of 1944, are continuing responsibilities which must be provided for in classification plans. In addition to including these additional functions, there is, for those states which have not maintained current USES plans, the major classification task required to modernize any plan which has not been revised over a period of four years or more.

Independent of the matter of classification revisions needed, there are comparable problems of compensation, including both any necessary action on revisions in salary ranges which have been made during the period of federal administration, and a review of the application by the War Manpower Commission to USES employees of various bonus plans and cost of living adjustments adopted by state officials for state employees. In addition, questions will undoubtedly arise in determining whether salary advancements granted during federal administration are concurred in by the state appointing authority and merit system agency. In the few states where USES personnel actions have been reviewed currently by the appropriate state agency, most problems of this type will have already been resolved.

At such time as the employment service personnel may be returned to the states, the administrators will be confronted with classification and compensation problems involved in placing on their pay rolls personnel who, in some instances, carry titles and salaries not found in the state classification and compensation plans. Here, too, it would seem important to provide some type of adjustment period which would permit provisional transfer to state rolls on an "as is" basis in order to allow opportunity for any necessary classification and wage surveys and the review of personnel actions affecting salaries. Chaos, poor morale, and excessive turnover would seem inevitable

without such an interim period unless there may be opportunity for detailed preparation on the part of both state agencies and War Manpower Commission prior to cessation of federal operations.

In the event of continued nationalization the problems of classification and compensation take on sizable proportions when considered merely from the standpoint of the size and scope of the task of developing a single nationwide plan to consolidate and replace the fifty state plans currently in effect. What are the optimum techniques for obtaining job information on 22,000 positions which will constitute an adequate basis both for the development of the plan and for making equitable allocations? All of this must be accomplished within a relatively short period, or the related personnel functions of recruitment, examining, salary advancements and adjustments, and promotions will be delayed or interfered with to such an extent that program operation will be affected adversely.

Existing state plans differ widely in the number of classes and the degree of distinction made between classes in terms of minimum qualifications and entrance salaries. These differences between classes may be much smaller in some states than the differences between grades under the federal Classification Act. How should the classes in a series such as that of manager of the local employment service office in a large industrial state having five levels or classes be meshed with a comparable series in a state which, because of size, population, or character of its industry, has had only two levels of managers? Perhaps, if the positions are placed under the Classification Act, a partial solution may be found in the application of the provision in the Federal Employees' Pay Act of 1945 permitting "split grades" to be set up. Basing allocation on a comparison of these positions across state lines may, however, disrupt the relationship which these positions bear to other positions, either within a given local office or within the state organization. What consideration should be given to existing qualification standards and salaries? These are only a few of the technical and administrative questions to be resolved by the personnel staff and administrators. Prior to their consideration, of course, decisions must

be made as to program content and objectives and to the organizational structure.

REEMPLOYMENT RIGHTS

THE COMPLEXITIES relating generally to the recognition of reemployment rights of persons returning from military leave and wartime jobs in public and private organizations are still further multiplied in the Employment Service. These reemployment rights may be based either on state or federal regulations, and in some cases on both. An employee who was granted reemployment rights under federal regulations will, in most instances, have no legal right to return to his job unless the Employment Service is under federal administration when he applies for reemployment.

In the event of return to state administration, states must decide at an early date as to their policy in respect to approximately 2500 USES employees who went on military leave subsequent to January 1, 1942. What are the relative rights to be granted employees in this group who acquired state status prior to January 1, 1942, employees who acquired federal status under Executive Order 8990 because they were reached on state lists prior to June 30, 1942, and employees who were appointed under federal war service regulations without regard to state lists? How will the rights given these returning veterans compare with the procedures followed in the case of USES employees on active duty status at the time of return to state employment? In what class and at what salary will these veterans be entered on state rolls? These are, of course, only a few of the policy questions to be settled. Related questions will arise in dealing with Employment Service personnel who were granted war transfers, with reemployment rights, to private industry or other federal agencies.

Under continued nationalization the basic rights in connection with both military leave and war transfers are defined under federal law and regulation. Many of the administrative problems, however, are comparable to those that would perplex state administrators, particularly in determining the job and salary at which the employee is to be reemployed.

Problems of still another employment service group warrant attention. The War Manpower Commission has administratively

granted reemployment rights to employees who have transferred from USES positions at state pay scales to other positions in the War Manpower Commission which are covered by the Classification Act. Unless these rights are exercised under federal administration, special provision should be made in the event of return to state operation, if these employees are to be retained for the employment service program. Although the total number of employees involved is relatively small, it includes some of the most experienced employment service personnel.

RETIREMENT RIGHTS

THE RETIREMENT STATUS of Employment Service employees represents another area in which solutions to existing problems will have to be found. Since January 1, 1942, USES employees have been subject to the federal retirement system and have contributed a percentage of their salaries to the retirement fund. Under existing legislation, retirement contributions may not be withdrawn after five years. In other words, at such time as the Employment Service may be returned to the states, employees who have a total of five years of federal service, including military service and employment in the National Reemployment Service, would not be eligible to withdraw their contributions to the retirement fund. The money would remain to their credit until they reach retirement age, at which time they would receive a small annuity. Legislation now pending in Congress (S. 403) provides that if federal operation of the Employment Service ceases, employees who return to state employment may be paid a refund of total deductions and deposits with interest.

USES employees returning to state employment in any of the 18 states having in operation a retirement system applicable to employment security agency employees will be concerned as to their rights and benefits under such state plans. Former state employees previously covered by a state retirement system would, of course, be interested in reinstatement to that system and in recognition of service rendered in the USES as creditable state service. In states in which retirement systems have been installed since the nationalization, procedures must be worked out for bringing former USES employees under its coverage. Some states have already passed legislation designed to protect USES employees from the loss of any benefits or rights they would have earned had the Employment Service remained under state administration. On the other hand, a governor of one state has recently vetoed a bill which would have reinstated former state employees to the retirement system and recognized service in the USES as creditable state service. His veto was on the grounds that the state should not be expected to contribute to the retirement fund for these employees for a period during which the state did not have the benefit of their services.

If the nationalization continues, employees are desirous of receiving credit toward retirement under the federal system for time spent in the state employment service program. Senate 403, if passed, would provide such recognition for employment in the state employment security agencies since the passage of the Wagner-Peyser Act. Service rendered by the employees of the former National Reemployment Service while on the federal pay roll is, of course, already creditable service.

Employee Suggestion Systems in the Public Service

JOHN A. DONAHO

AN EMPLOYEE SUGGESTION SYSTEM is an organized procedure whereby employees can submit to management for its consideration their ideas for increasing operating efficiency and conserving manpower, materials, and money. Some systems provide for submission of ideas through supervisory channels, but, typically, suggestions by-pass the regular chain of command.

During the war period government and industry have been faced with the tremendous task of carrying on greatly increased activities with limited or untrained personnel. Industry has long recognized employee suggestion systems as a tool of management for increasing efficiency, but with the exception of the Navy Department, it is only within the past few years that federal agencies have begun to use this management device.

The federal government has taken an active interest in the development of employee suggestion systems in industry through the stimulation of labor-management committees by the War Production Drive Headquarters of WPB. No such concentrated effort has been spearheaded within the government itself. Federal suggestion systems have been developed by enterprising managements interested in utilizing every idea that would help get the war job done, by active employee groups seeking to participate in management, and above all by the stimulus given to employee suggestions by the *Washington Post*, a local newspaper.

Throughout the latter part of 1942 and the early months of 1943 the *Washington Post* had conducted a contest for employee suggestions

and offered war bonds as prizes. To be eligible for a prize the suggestion had to be submitted to an official or committee designated by the agency head to pass upon suggestions. Suggestions approved by the agency were forwarded to the *Post* and were reviewed monthly by a committee which included the Director of the Bureau of the Budget and the Liaison Officer for Personnel Management. This committee decided which suggestions were to receive war bond awards. Many worthwhile suggestions were received and awards paid for them. Many other suggestions were received directly by the *Post* without departmental review and were therefore ineligible for reward. Suggestions on which awards were paid were fully publicized in the newspaper. The committees set up for participation in the *Post* contest provided the nuclei around which some permanent systems were developed.

At the end of 1942, when devices for improving manpower utilization were in great demand, the Bureau of the Budget took an active interest in suggestion systems. The Director of the Bureau of the Budget said to the House Committee on Civil Service in April, 1943:

Possibly one of the most important projects at this time is the stimulation of departmental systems which will utilize all employees' suggestions for improvements. Perhaps awards should be given for especially good suggestions. I hope suggestion systems will prove to have sufficient merit to become an accepted part of our governmental machinery. Apart from the incentive afforded the rank and file of employees by this form of participation in management, such systems will enable our supervisors to apply more extensively the detailed knowledge, observation, and experience of their employees.

The Budget Bureau made staff available to agencies to assist them in developing suggestion systems and to strengthen existing ones.

About this same time the State of Minnesota also took an interest in such systems and pub-

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lished a report.¹ This report was the result of an extensive survey of suggestion systems in government and industry. It was submitted to a legislative committee and a pilot installation was made in the Department of Administration. As in the federal government, the barriers of no funds for rewards and the doubtful legality of extra compensation to employees were present.

In May, 1944, the U. S. Civil Service Commission Library published a selected list of references on suggestion systems to guide agency personnel. This bibliography is a fairly comprehensive classified list of the publications on the subject.

SUGGESTION SYSTEM ESTABLISHMENT

WITHIN THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT there has been no concerted drive to get agencies to establish employee suggestion systems. Many agency managements apparently have been doubtful of the value of such systems in view of the high percentage of failures among industrial systems which were mismanaged, and have been discouraged by the difficulty of securing legislation enabling the payment of cash awards for employee suggestions. Also, the relationships of employee suggestion systems to agency personnel offices, organization and methods offices, and management improvement programs have not been thought through nor understood by management. Some government officials have felt that employees should present their ideas freely and without the necessity of special incentives. Despite these limitations an increasing number of systems have been established.

The wartime recruitment of personnel from among former industrial workers and the competition of government and industry in the active labor market led agencies interested in getting the war job done to adopt suggestion systems. This was particularly true of the War and Navy Departments with their arsenals and yards located near private establishments with suggestion systems paying liberal awards. In many cases these industrial systems have been the result of stimulation by the government through the WPB.

A factor which has somewhat retarded the

full development of federal suggestion systems has been the fear that the systems weaken the supervisor-employee relationship. The improvement and strengthening of supervision in the federal establishment is a desirable and necessary objective. Supervisors have participated all too little in personnel management, budgetary development, and methods improvement. Only recently have they been given the tools for tackling the total job of supervision through well-developed instruction in job relations and work simplification. In the ideal situation employees would freely present their ideas to their supervisors and receive commensurate and satisfying recognition. We are far from the ideal. If supervisors are fully informed of the purposes of a suggestion system their consciousness of what constitutes good supervision should be increased. Stopgap device though a suggestion system may be, it will not undermine supervision if it is properly administered.

In similar fashion, a well-conceived suggestion system will not infringe on the function of organizational and administrative research. Methods analysts will have a better grasp of "on the ground" problems through participation in the analysis of suggestions. They will also be in a position to spread the benefits of better work methods developed in one unit of an organization to other units doing similar work or faced with similar problems. A suggestion system is a device of general management rather than personnel management alone. Consequently, the direction of the system should be closely integrated with an arm of general management, such as the organization and methods unit if one has been established.

Suggestion system activity in federal establishments began with the passage of enabling legislation for cash awards in 1912 in the Ordnance Department of the War Department, and in 1918 in the Navy Department. Between the two wars, however, the Ordnance and Navy systems were inactive. Beginning with the revitalization of the Navy system and the publicity in the *Washington Post*, many agencies began to establish systems until today approximately twenty agencies are represented. Among these are the Interior, Navy, and War Departments, the Office of Price Administra-

¹ Minnesota Division of Administrative Management, *Recognition of Constructive Suggestions by State Employees*, St. Paul, June 15, 1943.

tion, the Maritime Commission, and the War Shipping Administration. Of these, the OPA is the only system operating completely with nonfinancial incentives. The Maritime Commission and War Shipping Administration operate a single joint system. These five systems cover almost 70 per cent of federal personnel.

AWARDS TO EMPLOYEES

PERHAPS THE largest stumbling block to the general adoption of employee suggestion systems has been the lack of general enabling legislation authorizing all agencies to expend funds for the payment of cash awards for adopted ideas. Industrial and governmental experience has shown that cash payments are the best form of reward because of their incentive value and their adaptability to the value of the suggestion. Of course some limitation upon the size of individual awards and total expenditures is to be anticipated in any enabling legislation. Without enabling legislation, however, an agency cannot submit an estimate of appropriations to the Bureau of the Budget and to the Congress. Navy, Interior, Maritime Commission, and War Shipping Administration have that legislation. Although the War Department has basic legislation in the authorization of the Ordnance program, the authorization for payment of cash awards to the department's personnel, generally, is included in appropriation legislation. This authorization has been permitted as a war measure, but is subject to a point of order as basic legislation in an appropriation bill under the rules of the House and Senate.

Strong reasons can be advanced for government-wide enabling legislation for the whole of the federal service. Such general legislation extending authority to pay cash awards to all agencies would provide a foundation for uniform agency systems enjoying equal benefits and would obviate the necessity of separate consideration of agency legislation by various committees of the Congress.

At the present time awards vary widely not only in the amount of cash which is granted as an award, but in the type and kind of nonfinancial awards. The War and Navy Departments place no ceiling on the size of the cash award which an employee can receive except

that local committees can only grant up to \$250. Larger awards are made by the central committees. The size of a single award under the Interior and Maritime-War Shipping systems is limited by the enabling legislation to \$1,000. Of the five systems mentioned above, that in the War Department alone grants no nonfinancial awards, and the system of the Office of Price Administration includes no cash awards. Nonfinancial awards are called citations, awards of excellence, awards of merit, awards of outstanding achievement, certificates, accepted suggestions, honorable mention, or whatever terminology seems appropriate.

PRINCIPLES OF OPERATION

THERE ARE several basic principles underlying the operation of every successful suggestion system which have been proved by industrial and governmental experience. Regardless of the type of system that is planned, those in charge of its installation should make certain that the following essential elements are present:

1. The suggestion system must clearly enjoy the sponsorship and support of top management in the agency.
2. It is staffed with at least a minimum secretariat and maximum utilization is made of existing management facilities of the agency for evaluating suggestions submitted.
3. There is a guarantee of a fair and impartial evaluation of all suggestions, and awards are made on the basis of merit alone.
4. A definite scale of awards is established and approved by the head of the agency, and the schedule of awards is related to the value of the suggestions accepted.
5. There is convincing evidence that the top management of the agency will follow through and capitalize upon the suggestions for which compensation or recognition is given.

The administrative structure within which the existing systems operate varies somewhat from agency to agency. The most successful systems are sponsored by the highest official in the agency, who delegates his authority and the administration of the system to a suggestions committee or board, the members of which he appoints. Committees are most effective when confined to policy and review, with the actual analysis of the suggestion being made by methods analysts and the operating supervisors concerned. In addition to a committee, one person is usually appointed to act as full-

time manager and to assume the responsibility for the operation of the system. The manager may or may not be a member of the central committee. Agencies with extensive field personnel usually have local committees set up at the various field establishments. These committees are appointed by the top local official and operate on a local scale in a manner similar to the national committee. Where there are a large number of subordinate committees the central committee acts in an advisory capacity, and as the coordinating agency for the promulgation of general regulations and the dissemination of promotional and publicity materials.

In all existing federal systems the employees go outside of regular supervisory channels to present their ideas. By means of suggestion boxes placed in convenient places, by the use of office mail, or through personal contact the employee may submit his suggestion direct to the suggestion committee or manager whose function is to provide for investigation, appraisal, acceptance, or rejection of all suggestions and to recommend appropriate awards. Final authority for making the awards usually rests with the top official of the establishment, but this too can be delegated.

Various types of suggestion blanks are used. Most of them are so designed as to allow the employee to remain anonymous if he wishes to do so. They generally include a clause releasing the government from any further claim in case of a cash award and give instructions for the proper procedure in case the question of patent rights arises.

HANDLING THE SUGGESTIONS

THE PROCESS of handling the suggestions after they are submitted breaks down into certain fundamental phases. Following is a brief summary of the important sequential steps in the procedure of handling suggestions.

Acknowledge the suggestion. Most existing systems provide a standard form for prompt acknowledgment of suggestions. Failure to observe this principle may tend to rebuff the employee and discourage his further participation.

Investigate the suggestion. Action should be prompt and decisive, and the investigation should be thorough and impartial. Special sub-

committees may be used to carry out the investigations, or the resources of administrative planning or technical staffs may be called upon. It is expedient to call upon the supervisor for assistance in proper evaluation and to ask the employee for further clarification of the suggestion.

Accept the suggestion or reject it. If accepted, the suggestion should be put into effect as soon as possible and some kind of effective follow-up should be carried out. In the event that the suggestion is rejected, the employee should be informed of the fact with a full explanation of the reasons for the rejection. Every encouragement should be given to try again with other suggestions, or to resubmit the original idea when circumstances change in such a way as to make the prospect of its acceptance favorable.

Notify the employee and give credit. The employees submitting winning suggestions should be immediately notified of the fact and presented with the appropriate award. The presentation should be made as publicly and with as much ceremony as possible. Employees respond to public recognition of their accomplishments. Other employees who may not have participated may be stimulated to submit ideas in order that they, too, may be one of those publicly recognized as having been of service to their agency.

Provide for the right of appeal. Opportunity should be given for an employee to appeal the decision on his suggestion. Without such an opportunity an employee has no recourse in case an error is made.

Keep reports and analyses. Essential records which should be maintained fall into two classes: administrative records necessary for the operation of the system and statistical records necessary for documenting, analyzing, and reporting the success of the venture. Administrative records should include a subject matter record file which provides the basic data for reports and a check for duplicate suggestions. Various cross reference files can be set up as required. The following items of record are suggested as being essential: suggestion, subject, number, date of receipt, final decision, savings or other worth, name of employee making suggestions, his grade and division or branch, and any other data deemed pertinent.

Some provision should be made for the inclusion in the employee's personnel file of a record of awards he has received. The second type of record might well include data on the percentage of employees participating, the number of suggestions received, the number and per cent accepted, and total savings effected in dollars, manpower, time, and efficiency.

Provide for a continuing and active promotional policy. Every possible means should be used to keep the employees interested and the ideas flowing. Personal letters of commendation from the committee or a top official to those employees receiving awards, talks to groups by various top management officials, bulletins, newsletters, posters, bulletin board exhibits, honor rolls, attractive leaflets explaining the system and instructing the employee how to submit his suggestion, and publicity in newspapers and other publications all serve to point up the system and keep it alive.

One problem which must be considered in planning a suggestion system is the question of who is eligible to participate and receive awards. This is a more difficult question in government than in industry. In government all civil servants are in a sense employees. In industry those who are management personnel are more clearly identifiable. Some agencies have permitted all of their personnel to be eligible for rewards. Others, such as the Navy Department, apply what is known as the "line of duty" test; that is, if the suggestion relates to something which is within the scope of the job responsibility of the individual, he is ineligible for an award.

RESULTS

ACTIVE, WELL-ADMINISTERED suggestion systems in the federal government have produced outstanding results, not only in terms of increased efficiency and reduced costs but in heightened employee morale. Participation in suggestion systems has gone so far in some instances as to keep an employee on the job when he was considering resigning. They also help management to spot enterprising employees who may be valuable in supervisory or technical positions although submission of an infrequent but valuable suggestion is insufficient evidence for promotion.

In addition to these less tangible results, actual cost reductions have been made in agency operations. The War Department, which operates the largest system covering 1,150,000 employees, estimates its savings from June, 1943, through April 1, 1945, at \$94,546,367. Cash awards paid during the month of June, 1945, totaled \$89,710. The current adoption rate is 24.9 per cent of the suggestions submitted. The adoption rate is a basic criteria for judging success of a system. An adoption rate of ten per cent is considered satisfactory by industrial concerns having long experience with suggestion systems. The monthly participation rate, another criterion, has become stabilized at around one per cent of total personnel. The Navy Department has estimated its savings at approximately \$15,000,000 for a year's operation.

Because of the size and industrial character of many War and Navy Department activities, these systems presently overshadow those in more normal governmental operations. In fact, individual suggestions in the War and Navy Departments have in several instances resulted in savings of up to two million dollars, with individual awards exceeding \$1,000.

In many regular governmental activities similar but less spectacular results have been obtained. The Office of Price Administration, for example, has achieved good results despite its dependence on nonfinancial incentives. Many significant changes in price and rationing methods have resulted from employee suggestions. Interestingly enough, a fair proportion of OPA suggestions have come from employees at the higher grade levels.

Inevitably suggestions for improving the work of one unit can be applied to other units within the agency and in many instances to other agencies. Those responsible for the management of agency systems have taken the initiative in bringing this type of suggestion to the attention of other agencies and to the Bureau of the Budget or the Civil Service Commission, if it is a matter affecting all agencies. This has served to broaden the effectiveness of federal suggestion systems.

Federal suggestion system managers have organized into an informal group which meets to exchange experiences and to encourage and assist agency personnel interested in establish-

ing new systems. These meetings have proved to be useful for these purposes and have also helped to keep participants informed on current developments, including legislation.

Another result of suggestion system activity which may be beneficial to the entire government is the present and potential publicity value of employee suggestions. The War and Navy Departments have made successful efforts to bring the results of their systems to the attention of the public through local newspapers and national magazines. News items and feature articles have been stressed. In the long run this publicity should serve to dispel some of the criticism leveled at the public service. An active suggestion system which produces results, cutting costs to the tax payer and giving him better service, is an effective answer to the criticism that the government is manned by an army of lethargic bureaucrats perpetuating themselves by self-created red tape.

FORECAST

THE GENERAL INTEREST in suggestion systems in the federal government and their results when well administered augur well for their continuation beyond the war. In recent management improvement programs which emphasize a mass attack on management problems, employee participation plays an im-

portant part. Likewise, government cannot ignore industrial experience through the same approach. The groundwork and experience for suggestion systems administration is now pretty well spelled out in recent literature so that state and local governments are also in a position to establish systems and coordinate them with efforts to improve management.

Suggestion systems, in order to become an accepted part of governmental machinery, must, however, overcome certain obstacles. For instance, the percentage of acceptable suggestions in the average system must be increased. More emphasis must be given to guiding employee thinking on particular problems so that "harebrained" and "gripe" suggestions will be held to a minimum. By concentrating on improving the quality of the suggestions submitted, existing systems will ensure their continuation and the prospect for new systems will be brightened. Although the experience of the War and Navy Departments is ample evidence of what suggestion systems can do, the operations in normal government activities will have to produce equal results before their position as a continuing device will be certain. Adequate presentation of results must also be made to legislative bodies, so that they will be prepared to support the legislation required to provide the needed financial incentive.

A Work Methods Training Program for State Employees

ROBERT P. FARRINGTON

THE WAR demands upon industry stimulated many efforts for the elimination of waste of time, energy, equipment, and materials. One attempt to meet these objectives took the form of a program enlisting the inventive ability of supervisors, foremen, and workers. To assist industry in making the most effective use of the men, the materials, and the machines available in their plants, the Training Within Industry branch of the War Manpower Commission enlisted the services of some of the best industrial analysts in the country and devised a job methods course for the training of foremen and workers in the techniques of improving methods for doing jobs.

This program proved so successful in industry that it has been adapted and modified for use in governmental agencies. Such an adaptation has been made for the California state service, and, since the program started a year ago, approximately 2,000 state employees in headquarters and field offices have taken part in the training program now being conducted in practically all state agencies.

WORK METHODS TRAINING

MANY TIMES government workers have been heard to say, "Why do we have to do this job this way? I know there is a better way." The basic purpose of the work methods training program now being conducted in California state agencies is to encourage employees to react in this fashion to job methods, to stimulate the employee to do something about it, and to train the employee so he knows how to analyze jobs and find better methods.

Experience with employee suggestion systems in many agencies had indicated that it was not enough merely to ask employees to suggest improvements. It was found that even

if they have the will, they generally do not know how to work out their ideas. Thus, the need for an organized work methods improvement program was recognized.

Work methods training is more than an employee suggestion system. It provides definite and recognized methods for working out new ideas for better job performance and for presenting these ideas to persons who are in a position to do something about them. Through this program, employees are trained in the analysis of the work of their unit and in making improvements in the methods of accomplishing the work. Instead of calling in outside efficiency experts, state agencies are now showing employees how to be homemade efficiency experts. With this "know how," they are able to make practical improvements that could not be arrived at any other way.

Typical employee suggestion systems are sometimes considered successful when as many as 10 per cent of the proposals are acceptable. In this new method, between 80 and 90 per cent of the proposals that are submitted are practicable. For example, in one agency more than 500 proposals out of a total of 600 were accepted and put into effect, resulting in a saving to that agency of 21,000 man hours per year, in addition to many qualitative savings, such as better relations with the public, improvements in procedures, simplification of forms, and improved employee morale. In another agency, an employee suggested a change in the method of handling outgoing mail which is saving approximately 40 hours a month and about \$4000 a year in postage. A file clerk in another agency made a suggestion for a simplified method of sending out monthly notifications to clients that has tripled the production of the unit. Another agency reports that, in a group of 190 trained employees, 71 proposals for work methods improvements have been

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put into effect, resulting in the saving to the department of 8,582 man hours per year. Other proposals from those attending the courses are now being analyzed in this agency.

THE PURPOSE of work methods training is to present a practical plan to help employees and supervisors get more and better work done in less time and with less effort by making the best use of present personnel, materials, and equipment. The work methods program attacks operating problems by equipping supervisors and workers to improve procedures and work methods. Supervisors and rank and file employees possess a great unused reservoir of intimate, practical knowledge about the work of their unit. This program taps this knowledge. It gets at basic problems: distribution of work, sequence of work, volume of work, and work methods. Since, under this plan, employees are trained to study and solve these four basic problems in their own units, improvements grow from the "grass roots." Employees are trained to gather facts quickly, to analyze these facts accurately, and to interpret them skillfully so that they can work out better work methods. The program calls for quick action by supervisors on improvements within their own unit. Proposals for improvements affecting wider areas of the organization are referred to a coordinator, who, following regular channels, facilitates coordinated analyses of the proposals as they tie into existing operating procedures. The work methods improvement program is not just a "shot in the arm" program of training. It is a continuing program which makes work methods improvement a part of every supervisor's and worker's day-to-day job.

INITIATION IN CALIFORNIA SERVICE

THE CALIFORNIA State Department of Employment, through its connection with the Federal Security Agency, conducted a work simplification program which had adapted from the job methods program of the Training Within Industry branch of the War Manpower Commission. This work simplification program was so successful in the Department of Employment that other state agencies became interested.

The State Personnel Board solicited the assistance of the Training Within Industry

branch of the War Manpower Commission and arranged for a demonstration appreciation meeting. All state agencies were invited to send representatives to this meeting. On that occasion the Training Within Industry Job Methods trainer demonstrated the principles of the job methods program and described the operation of the program that has been conducted in industry. Many state agencies requested the Personnel Board to cooperate with them in setting up a work methods training program in state government. The State Training Officer received special instruction from the Training Within Industry service in order that he might in turn train a staff to conduct the actual program within the various state agencies.

The Personnel Board is cooperating with state agencies in setting up this work methods program by conducting institutes to train key persons in the various departments. These trainers then carry out the program in their respective agencies. Forty-eight-hour institutes are held for the instruction of work methods trainers in state agencies. These trainers then conduct five two-hour training sessions for groups of ten people in their own agency. State agencies are encouraged to select work methods trainers from among their first line supervisory personnel. To function successfully, work methods trainers should be able to express themselves effectively and make job demonstrations, and should know how to encourage group discussion.

Each agency instituting the program appoints a coordinator to carry through the necessary action on proposals to put the work methods improvements into effect. The State Personnel Board supplies the trainers with training materials, forms, and a manual, so that they are equipped to carry out the training sessions for supervisors and workers in their own agencies. Six general training institutes have been conducted—three in Sacramento, two in San Francisco, and one in Los Angeles. The forty-two trainers who attended these institutes are now conducting work methods classes in their various agencies. Special institutes have also been conducted in practically all of the many large state hospitals. Eventually all state agencies will have conducted this work methods training program.

TRAINING METHODS

IN THE FIRST training session conducted in an agency, the work methods plan is put across to the trainees by a demonstration of how the plan has been applied to an actual job. The trainees are asked to observe the demonstration in terms of any job in their own unit. The instruction plan calls for the analysis of a shop for this demonstration, because this facilitates the emphasis of the principles of the plan and not the details of a specific job known to the participants. After the trainer demonstrates how the job was customarily done, he then very quickly shows how the job was done in a much better way which increased production, resulted in a better quality of product, made the work easier for the operator, resulted in more effective use of the equipment, and achieved a saving of materials. The trainer then shows how the improvements were worked out using the four-step plan: breaking down the job into component parts, questioning each detail, working out a better method, and applying the new method. Shown in the next column is the text of the instruction card which is the "text-book" for the work methods course.

People attending the training classes are instructed in breaking down a job or operation into its component parts or details. Trainees are then shown how to question each detail so as to eliminate unnecessary action, combine details when practicable, rearrange details for better sequence, and simplify all necessary details. As they study various jobs, trainees are also instructed to question office layout, work places, equipment, flow of work, safety, forms, form letters, clearances, reviewing, and all other controlled procedures. Each member of the class is required to take some job in his own unit and work out a better method of doing the job by applying the four-step work method plan. After class members have developed and written up the new work method, they are trained in applying it. This includes considerations with respect to the writing up of a proposal, selling it to superiors and all concerned, securing the necessary approvals, and putting the new method to work until a better method is developed. The program also calls for giving credit for suggestions for work improvement where credit is due.

HOW TO IMPROVE WORK METHODS

A practical plan to help you get **more and better** work done in **less time** and with **less effort** by making the best use of the manpower, materials, and equipment now available.

Step I—Break down the operation.

List all details exactly as done by the present method.

(Be sure details include everything you or others do in using manpower, materials, and equipment.)

Step II—Question every detail.

1. Ask these questions:

Why is it necessary?

What is its purpose?

Where should it be done?

When should it be done?

Who should do it?

How is "the best way" to do it?

2. Also question the:

Office Layout, Work-places, Equipment, Flow of Work, Safety, Forms, Form Letters, Clearances, Reviewing, and all other Procedures.

Step III—Develop the new method. (In cooperation with others.)

1. Eliminate unnecessary details.

2. Combine details when practicable.

3. Rearrange for better sequence.

4. Simplify all necessary details.

Make the work easier.

Simplify clearances, checking, reviewing, and other control procedures.

Pre-position equipment, supplies, and papers at the best places in the proper work area.

Let both hands do useful work, use devices for holding.

Use pre-printed material; simplify forms where practicable.

5. List details of new method.

Step IV—Apply the new method.

1. Write up your proposal.

2. Sell the new method to all concerned.

3. Get necessary approvals.

4. Put the new method to work. Use it until a better way is developed.

5. Give credit where credit is due.

Each trainee is required to present a demonstration before the group. In this demonstration he describes the present method of doing a job, explains how he used the four-step plan to work out improvements, describes the new method, and reads his proposal for putting the new method into effect. Forms are provided for listing the details of the present method, outlining ideas for improving the details, listing the details of a better method, and, finally, for writing up the proposals for the new method. Using a regular proposal form, class

members summarize their proposals for improving the method of doing their jobs.

This form is sent to the supervisor of the person making the proposal. A proposal might be worded like this: "The following is my proposal for improving the method of doing this work. We can save approximately 40 hours per month, and save the department approximately \$4000 in postage a year by making the following changes in handling outgoing mail: Instead of having the secretaries to the various division chiefs in this department send mail to branch offices in separate envelopes, estimating postage, and individually mailing these letters, all outgoing mail should be sent to the mail room. The mail room will consolidate all mail going to certain branch offices, put it into one envelope, put that envelope through a mail meter and thus eliminate a situation whereby branch offices receive several separate envelopes from the headquarters office in the same day."

At the bottom of this work methods proposal form there is provision for various actions by the supervisor: (1) the supervisor can approve it and state that he has put it into effect; (2) he can check the fact that he recommends that it be put into effect, because he has the authority to put it into effect; or (3) he can indicate that he is not recommending approval and give his reasons in a memo attached.

FACTORS ESSENTIAL TO SUCCESS

SUCCESS OF THE PROGRAM depends largely upon active top management cooperation for continuing work methods improvements. Top administrative participation must indicate that it is decidedly in favor of the program and make all others feel the same way. This positive encouragement will express itself by according recognition and credit to those who suggest improvements; by taking prompt action on proposals for improvement of work methods; and by impressing supervisors with the necessity for continually analyzing work methods in their unit and encouraging those under them to do the same. Successful operation of the training program also depends on selection of capable trainers to conduct the five two-hour sessions and on proper scheduling of the training sessions so that there will be a minimum of interruption of work. Best results have been obtained from sessions scheduled at the rate of

two meetings a week for two weeks, the final meeting in the series being held the third week.

To date the 2,000 California state employees who have participated in the work methods improvement program have submitted suggestions for improvement of work methods which, when put into effect, will save the various state agencies a total of 182,623 man hours per year. In addition to that quantitative saving, many qualitative improvements will result from these suggestions. Such improvements include better use of equipment, saving materials, improving of employee morale, better public relations, relieving supervisors from routine work, improvement in forms, greater safety, better inspection and coordination, and simplified procedures.

Government is big business. This business must be transacted with dispatch especially during the critical period following the war. Increased demands upon agencies have multiplied operating procedural problems facing each agency, and the war left a residue of old unsolved problems. Reconversion has resulted in new demands and necessitated new adjustments creating other problems to be solved.

Effective coordination and follow-through on the work methods program enable an agency to cut red tape, simplify procedures, eliminate unnecessary reports and forms, improve scheduling of work, and eliminate waste motion. State departments have recognized that improving work methods is not a job for a few experts. It requires the complete cooperation of everyone in the entire organization.

All agencies conducting the program have reported substantial savings in time and cost, improvement in quality and quantity of work, in employee morale, in service to other departments, and in public relations. There can be no sharp dividing line between improvements which save time and money or improve quality of work and those which improve morale. Improved morale is inevitable if an employee finds himself responsible for producing more and better work more easily. Likewise, an improvement which appears only to raise morale will very likely also result in increased production of higher quality. The program for work methods improvement in government means a better job done with less effort and in less time.

The Philadelphia Federal Council of Personnel Administration

W. BROOKE GRAVES

EARLY IN 1939, the Council of Personnel Administration, composed of the personnel officers of the various departments and agencies in the nation's capitol, was established in Washington. This organization proved to be so successful that steps were taken early in 1943 to create field councils similarly composed in the larger cities where there were considerable concentrations of federal employment. In fact, an experimental field council had been set up in Cleveland in October, 1942, followed by another for the metropolitan New York area in December of that year. The Philadelphia Council, one of twenty-eight now operating, was organized on August 4, 1943. The idea is even spreading to points outside the limits of continental United States.

COUNCIL PURPOSES AND COMPOSITION

THE PHILADELPHIA COUNCIL functions under a constitution which provides for a chairman, vice-chairman, executive secretary, assistant secretary and treasurer, and an executive committee of eight members, including the officers of the Council and the Regional Director of the Third United States Civil Service Region. Regular meetings of the Council are held, from 3:00 to 5:00 P.M., on the first and third Wednesdays of each month; shorter meetings of the executive committee occur on the second and fourth Wednesdays. The purposes of the Council are set forth in the following paragraphs from its constitution:

It shall be the purpose of this organization, as an inter-agency council on federal personnel matters in the Philadelphia metropolitan area, to seek to improve federal personnel administration. As a fact-finding and coordinating body, it brings a common mind, a common purpose, and a common practice into the

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personnel side of the life of the establishments and agencies operating in the area, whether departmental or field offices.¹

It serves as a central forum where personnel officers and directors may exchange their views, investigate and develop new plans, and spread throughout the service, information about new developments and better practices. It is an instrument through which personnel officers and directors may be rapidly acquainted with any new situation that may arise, and in which they may discuss the most suitable means of meeting it. It also serves as another means of contact between the field and Washington, advising and making recommendations with regard to personnel administration through appropriate channels.

As it approaches the end of its second year, the Council has approximately 175 resident members distributed by classes as follows:

Regular Members	60
Associate Members	102
Consultant Members	13
Consultant-Secretaries	1

Regular members are the top personnel officers in their respective agencies and installations. Associate members are the assistants to top personnel officers or the heads of subdivisions of the personnel offices. Each agency is entitled to one regular membership and not more than five associate memberships, although in order to be eligible for the latter the position of the individual must be in CAF Grade 7, or higher. The consulting members are outstanding persons in the community with some extensive interest in and knowledge of personnel matters. They come from colleges and universities, industrial and commercial establishments, and operating departments or agencies in the government service.

Not the least important aspect of the presence of the representatives of industry is the tendency to break down the mutual prejudice and suspicion which often exists between personnel people in private industry and those in

¹Two departmental offices are located in Philadelphia: the Immigration and Naturalization Service, and the Securities and Exchange Commission.

the government service. A category of honorary members numbering seventy-five has recently been added, including former regular members now residing elsewhere, the members and staff of the Washington Council, and the members of the United States Civil Service Commission. Nonmembers of the Council may be designated as Consultant-Secretaries when their services are desired in connection with the work of any one of the Council committees.

An analysis of the membership shows that more than sixty agencies are currently represented. While there have been occasional increases in this number in recent months, the bulk of new memberships has been in replacements or in the associate membership field. Frequent changes in membership presents one of the greatest obstacles to efficient operation. However, the agencies have shown a definite increase in interest, more and more of them indicating a desire to fill up at least a portion of their quota of associate memberships. In some of the field councils the idea of a junior council has been discussed, but it is believed that the associate membership plan, together with a training program for personnel office staff members, meets this need without creating a separate or affiliated organization, and without interfering with the expressed purpose of bringing together the top personnel officers.

COMMITTEE ORGANIZATION

MUCH OF THE COUNCIL'S work must of necessity be done through committees. During the first two years, eleven such committees have been authorized by the executive committee; of these, the following eight are now in active operation:

- Committee A—Classification and Salary Administration
- Committee B—Personnel Management
- Committee F—Training
- Committee G—Employee Relations
- Committee H—Employment and Placement
- Committee I—Veterans Affairs
- Committee J—Efficiency Ratings
- Committee K—Health and Safety

This list of committees follows in general, though not wholly, the precedent set by the Council in Washington. Each committee consists of a chairman, a consultant-secretary, and

usually five members. In selecting the personnel an effort has been made to choose individuals who have some special knowledge of the field covered by the committee assignment. This has meant in practice that, while the chairman of a committee was usually a regular member, many of the committee members—sometimes a majority—are associate members.

Each committee holds a monthly meeting at a regular time and place, and may also hold other special meetings. In so far as possible, all meetings held by or sponsored by the Council and its committees are listed on the monthly schedule of meetings. The consultant-secretary is charged with responsibility for notifying members of meetings, and for preparing and distributing to all members of the committee a brief summary record of the topics discussed and the decisions made at each committee meeting. The chairman of each committee is required to submit to the executive committee a brief semiannual report of the work carried on by his committee during the preceding six-month period.

Committee B, on personnel management, which is composed of the chairmen of all other committees, has as its province important questions not covered by other committees, and in general, questions of sufficient scope to impinge upon the special fields of study assigned to two or more other committees. Thus the question of the maintenance of a qualifications file might be of interest to the committees on placement, promotion, and personnel utilization, and might thus be handled by Committee B, as might such broad general questions as personnel problems of the postwar era.

COUNCIL MEETINGS AND PROGRAMS

THE COUNCIL holds regular two-hour sessions twice each month, and although the Constitution authorizes the calling of special meetings, only two such meetings have been called during the first two years. It was originally expected that the discussion of committee reports and of questions raised by members would consume most of the time of the Council meetings. When the Council was organized, the personnel officers were, in many cases, total strangers to one another; they could scarcely have been more so had they been residents of distant cities. Under these conditions, they

were generally reluctant to take part in discussion. Although, after meeting together for two years they are to some extent acquainted, many of them still seem hesitant about "speaking out in meeting." Their hesitancy is probably induced also by the size of the group, by the presence of administrative superiors and ranking officers, and, in some cases, by the fear of having personal opinions considered as agency policy.

These factors have made it necessary to do more in the way of program planning for meetings than had been expected. While the effort has been made to devote at least half of each session to consideration of committee reports and current business, half or occasionally more of the time has been reserved for a talk by an invited speaker or the presentation of a panel discussion. The accompanying table presents an analysis of types of subject matter discussed during the first two years.

TABLE I. TYPES OF MEETINGS DURING FIRST TWO-YEAR PERIOD

Talks, followed by discussion	24
Panel discussions	13
Discussion of committee reports	2
Problems of organization	3
Special meetings	2

The panel discussions have usually centered around the work of Council committees. The chairman of the committee often serves as chairman of the panel and some members of the committee have likewise served as panel members. In order to avoid any impression that committee membership would necessarily carry over to membership in a panel, half of a panel of five or six have usually been persons not in the federal service,—persons of distinction in the community in business, research, or other occupations related to the subject under discussion. The subjects covered by such panel discussions include position classification, employment stabilization and manpower problems, veteran placement problems, employee relations, reduction in force and retention preference procedures, and training.

The main speakers, with few exceptions, have been persons from the metropolitan area. Several personnel officers have visited the Council from Washington. The meetings on efficiency ratings in 1944 and 1945 were each attended by more than 300 administrative and

personnel officers, members of efficiency rating boards, and rating and review officers. The addresses on the efficiency rating program were mimeographed and widely distributed, not only in the Third Civil Service Region, but throughout the country. Also, with few exceptions, the speakers have been Council members. The major subjects discussed at the first forty-four regular meetings may be grouped as indicated in the accompanying table.

TABLE II. TOPICS FEATURED IN COUNCIL SESSIONS

Problems of Council organization	3
Personnel utilization	5
Stabilization and manpower problems	3
Personnel administration, general	3
Position classification	9
Efficiency ratings	4
Veteran affairs and reemployment	4
Employee relations	2
Training	2
Health and safety problems	3
Reduction in force and retention preference	3

ACTIVITIES OF COUNCIL COMMITTEES

THE ACTIVITIES of the Council center around its committees and are very largely an outgrowth of their work. Some committees, have been very much more active and effective than others, and while space limitations prevent describing all of them, the activities of a few have been selected for consideration. No claim is made that these accomplishments are "firsts;" many of these things have been or are being done elsewhere.

Evaluation of Training Programs. The committee on training has been especially active and has been most constructive in its approach to a type of problem relatively new to the federal service, at least in the field. The committee found well organized training programs in only a few of the larger agencies, and even here, it was their opinion that there had been no systematic attempt to evaluate the program, to find out whether the right training was being given in the right way to produce the desired results. The committee undertook, therefore, as its first project, the construction of a series of questionnaires or outlines which could be used for purposes of self-examination by an agency in order to determine the effectiveness of its training program.

There were five outlines in the series, dealing respectively with the organization, administration, supervision, instruction, and primary

considerations in determining the results of a training unit in operation. Suggestions and criticisms of the outlines were sought from top management with a view to the revision and re-issue of the outlines as a combined report. This has been done, with the result that there is now available a series of suggested standards by which a new training program may be established or an existing program may be judged.

Central List of Training Materials. In many agencies, training materials of various types are being used—books, charts, graphs, films, and other visual aids. The training committee early developed the idea that many of these materials might be available to other agencies on a loan basis if only there were some way of knowing what materials were available, where they were located, and under what conditions they could be obtained. Inquiry indicated that the various agencies were willing to cooperate, and it was decided to compile as complete a list of all such materials as possible. In the case of films and slides, information was requested as to the type of equipment required for their use. This list was mimeographed for distribution to all members of the Council, and effort is being made to keep the central file up-to-date as new materials are acquired by the cooperating agencies.

Scholarship Program. Fairly early in its work, the training committee became interested in a scholarship program operated in the New York area, through the cooperation of New York University and the Federal Personnel Council of Metropolitan New York. Inquiries were made locally at the University of Pennsylvania and Temple University, both of which institutions promptly indicated their willingness to cooperate with the Council in the establishment of a similar program in the Philadelphia metropolitan area. A scholarship committee was appointed, and negotiations were carried on with designated representatives of both institutions to work out the details in a manner satisfactory to both universities and to the Council.

The scholarship committee took the position that the most urgent need in the federal service at this time is for trained supervisors and administrators. The committee did not feel that it was its function merely to provide free

tuition for another bright young man or woman, however laudable such an objective might be, nor did it feel that college training, as such, was its main purpose. It was decided, therefore, to make two scholarships available each year for study at the graduate level in the field of public administration, including general administrative management, personnel administration, or budgetary and fiscal administration. Selections were made on the basis of scholastic ability, as indicated by the transcript of college or university record; capacity for leadership, as shown in daily work in present or recent positions; capacity for administrative work, as demonstrated in recent employment; and evidence of enthusiasm for the public service as a career. To make sure that these purposes were achieved, it has been necessary to limit eligibility to those who had permanent status in the federal service (not war service appointees), and to those who had received a baccalaureate degree from a college or university of recognized standing.

The offering of these two annual scholarships has significance far beyond the financial value of the scholarships themselves. Their establishment, with additional ones in succeeding years, gives to the Council and its scholarship committee an opportunity to do a liaison job between the federal agencies and the universities. It should be able to interpret the specialized training needs of the agencies to the universities, and publicize among the agencies the opportunities and facilities offered by the universities to the agencies. Such activity on the part of the committee should have the two-fold result of encouraging the universities to develop programs and courses suitable to the requirements of federal employees, scheduled at hours when they are free to attend them, and should also provide a means of emphasizing to federal agencies and employees the desirability of obtaining special training in fields related to their daily work.

Improvement of Supervision. In the endeavor to render helpful service in an area where there appeared to be urgent need, the training committee decided to study the problem of improvement of supervision. It was known that at least six federal agencies were

preparing training programs for supervisors and that there was great variation in the plans. About the only common feature was found in the fact that all were either to supplement or to follow the "J" courses.

Accordingly, some twenty distinguished leaders with experience in this field, representing private business, industry, and management specialists, as well as government, were invited to join with the committee as consultants, for a series of six monthly meetings. They were from various levels, representing executives, administrators, supervisors, and training personnel. Through these meetings, the group has identified and classified some twenty-five skills and knowledges that seem most essential to success in the supervisory function. These have been arranged on an evaluation sheet and approximately 1,000 estimates of relative importance secured at two levels—that of the immediate or first line supervisor, and that of the coordinating or higher grade supervisor. As a result of this evaluation leads will be uncovered pointing toward the form and content of (1) a practical device to measure supervisory ability, and (2) training programs for potential and acting supervisors. These are major aims which it is hoped may be achieved through subcommittees during the next year.

Efficiency Ratings. The efficiency rating system of the federal government, which is required by law, has long been the subject of controversy and complaint. While the efficiency rating given may have an important bearing on the future welfare of the employee, it is regrettably true that ratings are often given in a perfunctory manner, either on the basis of personal favoritism or of guesswork, without any adequate or objective consideration of the performance and ability of the employee. In other words, the committee on efficiency ratings felt that the two greatest abuses of the system were predetermined ratings and lack of reasonable care in the determination of ratings. It set about the task of discovering ways by which these defects might, at least in part, be remedied.

They sought first to determine the essential steps in a good procedure for the administration of the efficiency rating program, making a survey of the agencies and installations in the area to find out how each was handling the

problem. They then sought to determine how each important phase of the problem should be handled, basing their decisions upon the information before them, as well as upon their own judgment as to what ought to be done. A report was issued to members of the Council showing what the various agencies were doing, and what the committee thought might be the most desirable solution of each of the major problems involved.

The committee then undertook to find a way of reducing the amount of favoritism and guesswork in efficiency ratings. They found a general lack of understanding of the meaning of the elements on the efficiency rating chart. The comments in the *Efficiency Rating Manual* were helpful, but not altogether adequate. The committee concluded that if the essential ideas associated with each of the rating elements could be reduced to the form of questions, the raters and reviewers would be able to get a clearer idea of what it was they were trying to evaluate. This was done and, for ease in using the material, a worksheet was devised, which was later combined with the questionnaire. Each agency was asked to use this material on an experimental basis, and many of them did so. It was found definitely helpful, and many of the agencies expressed appreciation for it. During the second year, the committee studied the matter further, with the aim not only of improving its material, but of making constructive suggestions to the Civil Service Commission and to the Council of Personnel Administration in Washington, for consideration in connection with revision of the efficiency rating material to be used in the future.

MAJOR COUNCIL ACTIVITIES

IN ADDITION to the committee projects which are relatively restricted in scope, the Council has undertaken some major projects which cut across committee lines or involved the collaboration of numerous offices and agencies. In one case the Council met an emergency—a strike of all public transportation facilities in the city—by the immediate preparation of a policy statement covering the treatment of tardiness and absence among federal employees. More typically, major projects are continuing programs affecting large numbers of personnel staff members or employees.

Federal Personnel Management Conference.

Early in the spring of 1944, plans were begun for a three-day Federal Personnel Management Conference, to be held in Philadelphia in the fall. It was the purpose of this conference to provide an opportunity for the informal discussion of numerous problems in the field of public personnel administration, as they present themselves to responsible administrative officers in federal establishments in the region. Emphasis throughout was placed on the problems of the operating official, rather than those of the Civil Service Commission. While membership was limited to personnel people and to top management officials, the effort was made to bring in as members of this conference representatives of all of the important agencies, installations, and establishments within the Third Civil Service Region. The program, which was presented in one of the buildings of the University of Pennsylvania, was planned with a view to giving a fairly comprehensive coverage of the major problems now confronting persons charged with responsibility for federal personnel transactions.

Training Program for Personnel Staff Members. The meetings of the Council are limited to personnel officers, assistant personnel officers, heads of sections or divisions of personnel offices, and such outside experts as the Council or its committees may wish to consult. It appeared early in the work of the Council committees that some additional provision should be made for the staff members of personnel offices so that, in meetings of their own, these staff members might have an opportunity to become acquainted with each other, and to discuss common problems encountered in their work. It was hoped also that such a program might interest young people without previous experience in the personnel field.

In the spring of 1944, some evening group meetings of this type were arranged on an experimental basis. They served to demonstrate that a definite plan of major topics should be worked out in advance for each specialized group for which meetings were desired, and that some arrangement should be made by which regular attendance would be assured, and by which it would be possible to include, during the season, most of the people in the personnel offices in the area.

Six series of group meetings were planned, each series under the supervision of one of the Council's committees. The groupings of personnel staffs were as follows: classification analysts, efficiency rating and review officers, employee relations personnel, health and safety personnel, placement officers and clerks, and training personnel. Each of the committees concerned worked out a series of topics to be covered, the complete plan being presented to the personnel officers of the area. These officers were then asked to submit the names and addresses of the members of their staffs who would attend any one of these series of meetings, so that each participating employee might be notified of the program to be presented a few days in advance of each meeting.

Inasmuch as the training of staff members is in line of official duty, the meetings were scheduled, not for evening, but for late afternoon. This was not only a convenience to the persons attending, but it had the advantage of making it possible, to some extent, to control attendance, and gave the Council the right to expect that its committee chairmen in charge of each series of meetings would do a conscientious training job within the time limitations prescribed. Where the demand for a particular series of meetings was great enough to require it, additional sections were set up for that group. Ten sections were in continuous operation during 1944-1945, involving about 250 federal personnel office employees. Certificates of merit were issued to those whose interest and attendance warranted—about one-third of the number enrolled.

Training Program on Community Services. In the spring of 1945, the committee on employee relations developed an extremely interesting training project in the field of community services. One of their regular group meetings for employee relations personnel had dealt with this subject. The suggestion was made that it be further explored. It so happens that Philadelphia, with its age and its Quaker background, is very rich in all types of private social service agencies. With the cooperation of the Council of Social Agencies, the committee was able to develop a twelve-hour program, to be run in two-hour sessions on alternate days during a period of two weeks, which would give to employee counselors the essential commu-

nity information they required to do an intelligent counseling job. The speakers and discussion leaders were, in their respective fields, the most able and outstanding individuals in the metropolitan area.

The meetings were publicized as discussions of community services available to the working man and woman. Sessions were devoted to:

- (1) the worker and his problems, including public assistance and family counseling service;
- (2) substitute care for the workers' children, including day care and full-time care;
- (3) the use of leisure time, including summer camps, as well as activities for all age groups;
- (4) illness, including care in the home and in the hospital;
- (5) housing problems;
- (6) problems of the returning veteran.

At the concluding session, the general chairman of the 1946 United War Chest presented an award to each individual who had been in regular attendance throughout the series.

This program was significant for a number of reasons. It was highly successful because it had intelligent guidance and direction from the committee and the committee chairman. It was given in response to a definite request which grew out of the interest and the realization of need of the employee counselors in the various federal establishments. It gave to these counselors information with which to help troubled employees to solve their personal problems.

Chest X-Ray Program. The committee on health and safety, in addition to the conduct of a group meeting program and the promotion of first-aid rooms for federal employees, has developed and is carrying on an extensive chest X-ray program, in cooperation with the Philadelphia Tuberculosis and Health Association. The Association installs its portable unit in federal employee centers at stated intervals. The committee on health and safety is responsible for keeping a continuous, even, and adequate flow of federal employees to the unit, and for follow-up work in cooperation with the Association and the public health authorities.

In the larger agencies, this follow-up is left to the medical officer. However, there are in this city many small federal agencies which have no medical officer, and the committee functions for these agencies. In the first year of this program, 4,270 federal employees from

seventy-two small agencies were X-rayed. The program is on a volunteer basis, but every effort has been made to encourage employees to avail themselves of this free service. The Association does not consider the survey adequate unless at least 80 per cent of the employees of each agency have been X-rayed.

This program will be a continuing one as new employees come in and as other employees become willing to have their chests X-rayed. There is also work to be done in some agencies which have not yet availed themselves of this opportunity. The ultimate goal of the committee is an annual survey of all federal employees and a pre-employment chest X-ray of all new employees. Several agencies have already instituted the pre-employment chest examination.

PROSPECTS AND PROBLEMS OF THE COUNCIL

THE COUNCIL has an active program worked out for the months ahead. Its committees will continue with the projects already under way, and doubtless, many new ones will be undertaken, as the need for them arises. A Second Federal Personnel Management Conference is planned for October, and an extensive training program for the benefit of staff members in personnel offices will be carried on, perhaps in somewhat different form. The chest X-ray program is continuing. Plans have been developed for a central training unit and for a program of internship training.

All sorts of problems arise in connection with the organization and operation of a field council. Not the least of these is the newness of the personnel profession, and the fact that, in many instances, persons are assigned to personnel jobs who have never had any training for or experience in the field of personnel. For these people, however, the Council is extremely important. Some of them have not the slightest understanding of elementary and fundamental concepts in the field of personnel management. For them, the Council must do a training job, albeit ever so tactfully.

Another difficulty—and a related one—arises out of the rapid rotation or turnover in persons assigned to the personnel function in the various agencies and installations. In many cases, the individual no sooner begins to get some understanding of the job to be done than a

reassignment is made, and another new person comes in. This, too, may be due to the newness of the profession—to a lack of realization that there are certain facts to be learned and certain skills to be acquired if a good job of personnel management is to be done.

Nearly all of the field councils have had something of a problem in maintaining attendance and keeping up a sustained interest. Some members have a tendency to attend Council meetings when they have nothing else in particular to do at the moment, or, otherwise, to send some clerk to represent them. For a variety of reasons, there was—at least in the early stages—a hesitancy on the part of members to participate in discussion. In some of the smaller councils, there was a tendency to use Council time for the discussion of problems quite out-

side the scope of personnel administration.

Inasmuch as the field councils have been established during the war period, they may be regarded by some as a phase of the war organization. Actually, they are much more than that. The Council of Personnel Administration in Washington was established in peacetime, and has continued to function with increased effectiveness during the war years. It is to be expected that the field councils, established in wartime, will function during the postwar years with greatly increased benefits to the personnel officers themselves, and to the agencies they represent. Here is a somewhat new but most promising device for the raising of standards of personnel administration in the field service of the various federal departments and agencies.

COURT DECISIONS

EDITED BY H. ELIOT KAPLAN

Scope of Civil Service Laws—Statutory Interpretation—Florida. The Florida Supreme Court has ruled that employees of the Greater Miami Port Authority are unaffected by civil service laws relating to the City of Miami. Both the city and the port authority are creatures of the state legislature, created by separate statutes, and it is on these statutes that the court relied to ascertain the respective powers and duties of the two local units. Referring to the statute creating the port authority, the court in *City of Miami v. Greater Miami Port Authority*, 22 So. (2d) 152 (Fla.), declared:

It is clear that the Act does not give the City of Miami any power or jurisdiction over the employees of the Port Authority, but all such power is vested exclusively in the Port Authority. The matter of hiring its employees rests solely with the Port Authority. Moreover, it has the exclusive power to fix the qualifications of employees, the compensation to be paid them, and the conditions under which they shall continue in employment. In short, Greater Miami Port Authority and the employees hired by it after the effective date of the Act are totally unaffected by the provisions of the civil service laws of the City of Miami.

Vacancies—Failure to Give Official Bond. Public officials frequently attempt to utilize technical statutory provisions which often lead to an unjust result. Occasionally, the courts thwart such attempts by liberal rather than literal interpretations of the law. In *State v. Gallitz*, 61 N. E. (2d) 738 (Ohio), a village council passed a resolution declaring the position of village clerk vacant, despite the fact that an election had been held only one month previously. Justification for declaring the position vacant was found in the fact that the successful candidate had failed to give an official bond, as required by state statute. The court held that such statutes are merely directory, and do not impose an absolute condition precedent to taking office.

The courts are not in accord as to the nature of statutes prescribing the time within which public officers are required to qualify. The decisions vary according to the wording of the particular statutes in question, but in the majority of the jurisdictions the rule has been laid down

that in the absence of a provision expressly declaring that the failure to take the oath or give the bond required shall operate ipso facto to vacate the office, such a statute is merely directory and the officer may afterwards comply with the requirements of the statute, unless a vacancy has actually been declared by the proper legal authority.

Therefore, the position did not automatically become vacant when no bond was given. It is true that the village council declared a vacancy, pursuant to statutory power to declare vacancies, but the village action was patently arbitrary.

At this special meeting the council passed the resolution vacating the office as an emergency measure. Upon the face of the record no emergency was presented and in declaring the office vacant as an emergency measure the council acted arbitrarily and its conduct in this regard constituted an unwarranted attempt to set at naught the will of the majority of the electors of the village.

Officers—De Facto Doctrine—Special State Prosecutor. The familiar doctrine of de facto officers received application in *U. S. v. Lindsley*, 148 F. (2d) 22 (C. C. A. 7), where a defendant objected to a conviction for criminal libel on the theory that the special state prosecutor was incapable of being appointed, so that his conduct of the proceedings rendered the indictment void. The court reaffirmed the settled rule that "a person actually performing the duties of an office under color of title is an officer *de facto*, and his acts as such officer are valid so far as the public or third parties who have an interest in them are concerned."

(*Editor's Note.* The same rule would undoubtedly apply in the case of the *de facto* service of a member of a civil service commission, or a personnel director, whose appointment was later declared to have been invalid. The acts resulting from their employment would not be voided solely because of the invalidity of their appointment.)

Dual Employment—Acceptance of Two Public Jobs—Validity. The Kentucky Court of Appeals has ruled that a deputy county court clerk could properly spend his spare time preparing new indexes of court records, and receive compensation therefor, (*Land v. Lewis*, 183 S. W. [2d] 803

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[Ky].) After pointing out that a contract for this type of work was authorized, the court said:

The statute contemplates an independent contract for this work and such was made. The situation is different from one where a clerk or other officer merely does something, even under statutory or official requirement, which may be regarded as incident to or is of the same character as a previous official duty.

That rule does not apply where an officer or employee performs extra services outside of official duties and with which they have no affinity or connection and which do not interfere with his official duties. In such an instance, he may be employed to perform the services and is entitled to compensation provided for it.

Dual Employment—Right to Forbid—New York City Fire Department. The New York Courts have again upheld the authority of the Fire Commissioner of New York City to prohibit by rule the employment of any member of the Fire Department in any outside activity upon penalty of dismissal. (*Calafapietra v. Walsh*, 54 N. Y. S. [2d] 231 [App. Div.].)

(*Editor's Note.* Compare, however, *Natilson v. Hodson*, 47 N. E. (2d) 442, where the court denied such authority to the Commissioner of Welfare in the absence of express statute.)

Dual Employment—Public Officers—Statutory Bar. A Pennsylvania statute forbids a district attorney from holding "any other office under the laws . . . of the state. . . ." In *Commonwealth v. Shumaker*, 41 Atl. (2d) 857 (Pa.), it was held that by virtue of this statute a district attorney could not be elected township solicitor by a township board of commissioners. The court maintained that:

Even if a municipal solicitor is not a public officer within the legal contemplation of that term . . . it is not open to question that the office of township solicitor is an office expressly authorized by the Act of June 24, 1931. . . . When a board of commissioners elects a township solicitor . . . the action is necessarily pursuant to the authority conferred and the requirements prescribed by the Act of 1931.

(*Editor's Note.* The issue of dual employments in the public service is not usually based on statutory prohibition, nor does it necessarily involve "public offices" as distinguished from "employments." The issue generally involves the compatibility of the positions held, whether offices or employments.)

Classification—Covering-In Incumbents—Similarity of Positions. The New York law providing for unification of the New York City transit lines under city ownership, and covering incumbents into the civil service system, was held in *Miller v. Bromley*, 54 N. Y. S. (2d) 209 (Sup. Ct. Sp. Term), to authorize the Municipal Civil Service Commission to classify and grade the former company employees under the city civil

service in accordance with the commission's schedules. In the case at issue, the commission classified the employees as street car operators and bus operators, whereas they demanded classification as inspector of service and surface lines dispatcher. The court pointed out that the commission had made a careful study of the type of work performed by complainants under private ownership, and, although occasionally they performed the higher duties, basically their permanent positions were those of operators. Under the Wicks Law, the commission was under a duty merely to continue the employment of incumbents, without examination, in similar or corresponding positions, and this duty was fulfilled when the commission acted in good faith on the facts it found to exist. It was not the title or grade of the position held in the private company's employment which governed, but the classification schedules and grades of the commission applying to the duties of the position.

Salary—Extra Work During Emergency. In an emergency members of a police or fire force (and the rule undoubtedly would apply to any other type of public employment) may be required to perform extra duties beyond those normally required, whether by statute or by general practice. In such cases the employees are not entitled to extra pay as a matter of right. In *Kane v. Walsh*, 60 N. E. (2d) 131, members of the New York City fire force, claiming that under the statute they were required to serve only eight hours a day under the so-called "three platoon system," sued the city for extra pay for time served by them beyond the regular eight-hour tour of duty. The petitioners claimed that no immediate emergency existed and that therefore their extra service was not strictly of an emergency character. The Fire Commissioner contended, however, that an acute manpower shortage existed in the uniformed force during the war emergency, and that public safety required the performance of extra service by the uniformed force.

Salary—Public Officers—Temporary Relinquishment of Office. Where an employee sought a leave of absence from his position for his personal convenience or other reasons of his own, he is not entitled to salary for the period of his absence. In *Hirschberg v. City of New York*, 60 N. E. (2d) 539 (N. Y.), a general law assistant in one of the New York City courts asked to be excused from performing his duties pending determination of a larceny charge which had been lodged against him. After his acquittal and upon resumption of his duties he brought a proceeding for the

pay withheld during his period of leave, claiming that he held a public office and that the salary went with the office and he could not lawfully waive such salary. The court held that an officer or employee who seeks a leave of absence for his own purposes is not entitled to any pay during such leave; that in spite of the general rule that where a public office is involved the salary is an incident to the office, the payment of salary is dependent upon actual discharge of the duties by the officer or employee. The leave of absence under the circumstances here was deemed a temporary relinquishment of his office. "Whatever right he had during that intermission," stated the court, "was manifestly not a right to salary."

Employees' Claims—Waiver—Estoppel. Frequently, fundamental principles of contract law are utilized by the courts in resolving salary disputes between municipalities and their employees. In *Donahue v. City of Philadelphia*, 41 Atl. (2d) 879 (Pa.), the court ruled that a city police officer could not question the validity of the imposition of a disciplinary fine where he voluntarily paid it by performing work without salary and freely signed receipts which acknowledged payment of salary to him during the period. The court held that there was an account stated, which cannot be subsequently attacked in the absence of any mistake:

The city intended to charge appellant with his fine, and appellant intended to acknowledge his liability for it and certify to his payment of it by working the required period without pay. He accepted payment of the wages due according to the account stated, receipted for them, acknowledged that no further liability existed, entered no protest, and for eighteen months made no complaint. He is bound by his acceptance and his long acquiescence.

Moreover, if, instead of a contractual obligation, we are here dealing with a fine, it is elementary law that a fine voluntarily paid or discharged, without protest, cannot be recovered.

Another case involving an estoppel growing out of acquiescence was *Judson v. Newark Board of Works Pension Association*, 42 Atl. (2d) 289 (N. J.), where an employee who had accepted statutory pension payments after a resolution retiring him had become effective was held to have "acquiesced in the involuntary retirement, and is now estopped from proceeding under the second pension act."

A statutory aspect of this same question may be found in New York City, where, if an employee fails to note a formal protest when signing the city payroll, as required by Sec. 93c-2.0 of the administrative code, he forfeits his right to advance a claim against the city. (*McKibbin v. City of New York*, 53 N. Y. S. [2d] 474 [Sup. Ct. App. Div.])

Provisional Appointments—Statutory Time Limit—Effect of Expiration of Statutory Period.

It is a general principle that a provisional appointment does not automatically ripen into a permanent appointment. Where a statute places a specific time limit on the length of a provisional appointment, then at the expiration of such period the appointee loses all claim to his position. In *De Sarro v. Snowden*, 42 Atl. (2d) 89 (Pa.), a provisional appointee took a competitive examination while occupying his provisional position, and was then appointed to his new position as a probationary employee. In justifying dismissal of the employee at the end of the probationary period, the court said:

Having entered the employ of the city as a provisional employee he lost his civil service status after the expiration of three months and did not regain it until he was appointed timekeeper after passing the civil service examination for that position. And since it was an original appointment it could be only for a probationary period of three months at the close of which it could be and was terminated.

In distinguishing between provisional and probationary appointments, the Court quoted from *McCartney v. Johnston*, 326 Pa. 442, 448, 191 Atl. 121, 123, as follows:

Provisional and probationary appointments under the act are of an entirely different standing. Provisional appointments are provided so that when there is no list of eligibles temporary appointments can be made to meet emergencies until the civil service commission has sufficient time to prepare, advertise, and hold competitive examinations for the position to be filled. The purpose of probationary appointments is to afford an opportunity to observe the fitness of the probationer while at work, and to ascertain whether it is probable that he will become a proper and efficient municipal employee. Save for the fact that both periods of appointment are three months in duration, provisional and probationary appointments have nothing in common.

(*Editor's Note.* See *Koso v. Greene*, 260 N. Y. 491, 184 N. E. 65; and *Matter of Hilsenrad v. Miller*, 284 N. Y. 445, 31 N. E. (2d) 895.)

Demotion—Reinstatement—Right to Back Salary. Where a civil service employee is wrongfully demoted in rank, and thereupon withdraws from employment completely until his status is settled via court action, he has no right to his full salary during the period of his withdrawal. He can only claim the difference between the salary of the rank to which he was demoted, and the salary to which he was lawfully entitled. (*City of Van Buren v. Matlock*, 186 S. W. [2d] 936 [Ark.]) The appellee had been demoted from chief of police (\$105 per month) to patrolman (\$90 per month) and he declined the latter position. The court ruled the demotion was improper, but awarded only \$15 per month for the period in question, stating:

Appellee in seeking reinstatement as chief of police and recovery of salary due to him, relied solely on the provi-

sions of the civil service law. He cannot ask the benefits of this law without assuming its burdens. Under this law it was his right and his duty, if he wished to retain his connection with the police department, to continue as patrolman until his appeal was heard and determined. Had he done so he would have received the salary of \$90 per month which the city presumably was compelled to pay to another man. Therefore he is not entitled to recover from the city this portion of his salary, which he would have received if he had obeyed the order of the Commission.

The court also ruled that when appellee returned to his proper position of chief of police, after the courts had ruled the demotion was improper, he did not thereby waive his right to back salary.

He had a right to go back to work as chief of police, and he did so, not under any sort of agreement, express or implied, with appellant, but as a result of having successfully contested in court the order of the Civil Service Commission. By doing this he did not waive his right, given to him by statute, to seek to recover the amount of the city's liability to him accruing from the erroneous decision of the Commission.

Demotion—Policemen—Causing Internal Dissension. The Wisconsin Supreme Court has upheld the demotion of a city policeman charged with insubordination and creating internal dissension within the department. (*State v. Board of Fire and Police Com'rs.*, 18 N. W. [2d] 461 [Wis.]) The board had ordered that the offending police officer be demoted in rank and suspended for one year. The court held that since the statute provides that an offending policeman "may be suspended, reduced in rank, or removed," this involved alternative, rather than cumulative, disciplinary measures. But the imposition of both penalties did not render the proceedings void. The court cited the rule that a valid part of a judgment within a board's jurisdiction may stand, if it is not dependent on the invalid portion which is set aside. The court declared:

In this case, it appears to us that the suspension and demotion are not dependent upon each other. The board intended to do both and hence it is fair to assume that they intended to apply one of the penalties if they could not apply both. Since they first mentioned the demotion, which is the heavier penalty, it is a fair assumption that that was the important part of the order and that in any case they would have inflicted that punishment.

The court also held that the board properly excluded evidence submitted by the police officer to show that he was trying to bring to the attention of his superiors various breaches of discipline within the department. In this connection the court said,

The board rightly took the position that this evidence had no bearing upon the question whether Heffernan was guilty of conduct destructive of departmental discipline and morale. Assuming his entire good faith and the truth of the charges that he made against the chief and other officers, Heffernan's methods were necessarily and fundamentally subversive of discipline. Instead of presenting the charges to the chief or board, the record contains evidence

which the board was entitled to believe, that he sought to undermine the authority of the chief by criticising him to other officers and by other means, with the purpose and effect of increasing confusion and difficulty within the department. The most that the evidence offered could show was that Heffernan did all this with the purpose of so demoralizing the department that the chief would be supplanted and that under better leadership efficiency and good conduct would ultimately be achieved. This is the one sort of activity that cannot be permitted to a subordinate if the department is to function at all. It usurps the function of the person in whom responsibility has been vested by orderly processes. However worthy Heffernan's motives or ultimate objectives, his methods could not be tolerated. It follows that the evidence offered would not constitute a defense and its exclusion did not interfere with Heffernan's right to a hearing. There was no jurisdictional defect in this regard.

Incidentally, the court held that the employee's constitutional guarantee of free speech was not impaired, since "it is within the police power to protect the discipline of the police department by requiring that its employees may not, through the exercise of the function of speech, so undermine the discipline and upset the morale of the department."

Veterans Preference—Demotions—Requirement of Charges. The Iowa Supreme Court has applied the state veterans preference law so as to nullify the demotion of a detective to the position of patrolman without charges and trial required by the statute. (*Ervin v. Triplett*, 18 N. W. [2d] 599 [Iowa].) The court maintained that even though the petitioner had been assigned on many occasions from patrolman to detective and reassigned to patrolman, nevertheless the statute requiring removal to be made only after a hearing on charges applied where the detective was later reassigned as patrolman. The reassignment was deemed by the court tantamount to a "demotion," even though the long practice had been to make such assignments and reassignments in the discretion of the police superintendent. The court appears to have been much impressed by the fact that as a detective the petitioner received \$10.75 a month more pay.

The court also ruled that a detective is not a "confidential officer" within the provision exempting such positions from the operation of the preference statute, in that the nature of the detective's work bore no confidential relationship to the commissioner, but only to the petitioner's superior officers.

(*Editor's Note.* The reasoning of the court that by assignment, even though in the discretion of the appointing officer, an employee acquires a vested right in the assigned position is rather strained. The general rule is that where an employee may be assigned as a matter of discretion, his reassignment is also a matter of discretion.)

Workmen's Compensation—Coverage—Volunteer Firemen—Public Office or Employment. The Iowa Supreme Court has recently ruled that the state workmen's compensation law does not apply to volunteer firemen. The court based its decision on the legislative history of the statute, which revealed repeated recommendations for specific coverage of volunteer firemen. Since these recommendations repeatedly made were not accepted, the court found a legislative intent not to include volunteer firemen. (*Heiliger v. City of Sheldon*, 18 N. W. [2d] 182 [Iowa].)

Despite the fact that the ruling regarding the legislative intention was all that was necessary for the decision of the case, the court discussed at length whether volunteer firemen are officers or merely employees. The court, citing many authorities, concluded that volunteer firemen are employees rather than officers, and that therefore the provision of the compensation law exempting officers was inapplicable. The following comment of the court on these distinctions is interesting.

The term "public officer" or "public official," has received broad, narrow and widely varying definitions, by numerous courts. One may find a definition which will fit almost any particular instance.

Among the essentials of public office are the delegation to the office and its occupant of some of the sovereign functions, powers, duties and trusts of government, the authority to direct, supervise, to perform duties with more or less independence of superior control. There is entrusted to the office and the officer a portion of the sovereign power of government.

The duties of a fireman are of an important public sort, but there is vested in such service no element of trusteeship possessing an ingredient of sovereignty. He handles no public funds, and discharges no duty which sovereignty is bound by law to discharge. He is not a public officer as ordinarily defined. 42 *Amer. Jur.* 882, §4.

Collective Bargaining—Public Employee Association—Status as "Labor Union." The United States Supreme Court, in *Railway Mail Association v. Corsi*, 89 L. Ed. 1435, recently upheld the determination of the New York courts that the Railway Mail Association, a fraternal organization composed of postal employees in the federal civil service, is a "labor organization" subject to regulation by state law. The New York statute prohibits any labor organization to discriminate in its membership on a basis of color, race, or creed. Originally the New York court held the Railway Mail Association not to be a labor organization under the terms of the New York statute. (See *Public Personnel Review*, April, 1944, p. 111.)

The Court of Appeals, however, held that the Association, which was a New Hampshire corporation with many branches located in different parts of New York State, was a "labor organization," inasmuch as the Association was constituted for

the purpose in whole or in part of "dealing with employers concerning grievances, terms or conditions of employment, or other mutual aid or protection." The Railway Mail Association claimed that neither the civil rights law nor the labor law of the state applied to it in that it was not a labor organization within the meaning or contemplation of such laws.

The United States Supreme Court in affirming the decision of the New York Court of Appeals held that it was within the province of any state to determine the conditions under which any membership corporation may conduct its business within its borders, and that the prohibitions contained in the New York law against discrimination were in no wise repugnant to the federal constitution, but, on the contrary, complied with its spirit. The court overruled the contention that only the federal government could legislate with respect to an organization the membership of which was restricted exclusively to federal employees.

The comment of the New York Court of Appeals on one or two phases of the case is rather interesting.

The purpose of "collective bargaining" is not included in the objects for which the plaintiff exists and is continued. Membership in the plaintiff is confined to mail clerks who are civil service employees and the plaintiff and the defendants agree that the terms and conditions of employment of civil service employees of the Post Office and of other departments or agencies of the federal, state or city government must be fixed by governmental authority and not by collective bargaining.

An association constituted for the purpose of "organized effort" and the presentation of concerted demands of workers as a class in order to secure material benefit and reforms in conditions of employment is a "labor organization" both in common parlance and as defined in Section 43 of the Civil Rights Law.

The legislature does not act arbitrarily or capriciously when it determines that no association of workers, whether in industry or in the civil service, which undertakes to speak and act collectively for such workers in improving wages and working standards may deny membership to a worker because of race, creed or color, relegating him to the wilderness where he must cry unheard.

A statute in general terms which prohibits all labor organizations within this state, including organizations of workers in government service, from discriminating on the ground of race, creed or color, violates no public policy of the United States, does not interfere with or impede any government service, and invades no field from which the State is excluded by the Constitution.

Suspension—Insubordination—Public Criticism of Superiors. Just how far public employees may publicly criticize their superior officers is a moot issue. The extent to which they may publicly air their grievances is also not too clearly defined. The issue arose in *State v. Steinkellner*, 18 N. W. (2d) 355 (Wis.), where the court ruled that local newspaper criticism by unionized firemen of their superiors constituted a violation of departmental

regulations which justified disciplinary action. The key to the decision is the fact that departmental rules provided for regular channels through which grievances were to be aired, and the employees had complained publicly without resorting to these channels. Pointing out that the rules of the Milwaukee Fire Department were reasonable and not restraints on the constitutional right of free speech, the court declared:

Considered as a whole, the rules simply require that complaints must come through the regular channels. They may be made to the chief, even though the matter involves his own conduct; they may also be made to the board of police and fire commissioners without insubordination. It seems to us entirely reasonable that so long as there are outlets for complaints the discipline of the department be maintained by avoiding public controversies between the subordinates of the department and their chief. Any other rule would tend to destroy the discipline of the department and it seems to us that regardless of the rule prohibiting giving information outside the department the indulgence in public criticism such as is involved here in advance of any attempt to have the grievances settled within the department is an act of insubordination and is subversive of discipline.

(*Editor's Note:* The above case calls to mind Justice Holmes' aphorism: "The petitioner may have a constitutional right to talk (politics), but he has no constitutional right to be a policeman.")

Abolition of Position—Indirect Methods—Reducing Salary Below Reasonable Level. Where an office is created by state statute, a municipal legislature is without power to abolish that office, since a state law is always superior to the powers of the various subdivisions within the state. What a municipality may not do directly, it may not accomplish by indirection. In *State v. Mayor and Board of Alderman of City of Oakdale*, 21 So. (2d) 482 (La.), the court ruled that where a city presumably pursuant to statutory authority, fixed a court marshal's salary at only ten dollars per month, this was, in effect, an attempted abolition of a state-created office, which the court would not permit. Commenting on the technique followed by the city authorities, the court stated:

It is a well-settled principle of law that where the legislature creates an office, a city council can not abolish or nullify it either by direct or indirect means. It stands to reason that a municipal council can not fix the salary of a ward marshal so low that a competent person can not afford to accept the office. If the council attempts to do this, the court may interfere to prevent the abuse by the council of its discretionary right to fix the marshal's salary.

(*Editor's Note:* The courts will generally not attempt to interfere with the authority of those empowered by law to appropriate funds for public purposes even where the court may believe the funds appropriated wholly inadequate for carrying out effectively the purposes of the statute. It is only where the appropriation is so utterly in-

adequate as to constitute deliberate evasion and lead patently to a conclusion of "bad faith as a matter of law," that the courts will invoke their power to mandate compliance with the plain purpose of the law.)

Abolition of Position—Municipal Power—Demotion of Incumbents. Generally, a municipal legislature which has the power to create positions is given power to abolish them, and in the absence of a clear case of bad faith an attack on the abolition of the position is doomed to failure. This proposition was illustrated in *State v. George*, 61 N. E. (2d) 87 (Ohio), where the court upheld the power of the City of Cleveland to reorganize its fire department by abolishing the rank of fire warden and demoting all incumbents of that position to the next lower rank of captain. The incumbents were in a peculiarly disadvantageous position to complain since, as a result of the reorganization, they actually received advantages which they did not possess before, for as the court maintained:

The fire wardens were demoted to their own benefit in that they received greater salary than before and are assured an opportunity for promotion to a higher rank, with increased emoluments. They cannot complain of heavier burdens for the duties they perform are exactly the same as before demotion. The loss of the title and insignia of fire warden necessarily followed the abolition of the rank, but was atoned for by the advantages that followed. In all respects the ordinance and classifications are reasonable; there is no discrimination as to those similarly situated and no denial of the equal protection of the laws.

Removal—School Teachers—Expressions of Disloyalty to U.S.—Hearing by Committee of Board. The Appellate Court of Illinois has recently been presented with the interesting question as to the right of a city board of education to dismiss a school teacher because of public expressions which were disloyal to the United States government. (*Joyce v. Board of Education*, 60 N. E. [2d] 431 [Ill.].) The statute permitted dismissal for "cause" and the board dismissed a teacher who had sent a letter congratulating a former student for refusing to register under the Selective Service Act. The court held that where the statute is silent as to what constitutes "cause," then "the right to determine the question is the tribunal having jurisdiction of the particular officer or employee"—in this case, the board of education. The court upheld the board's conclusion that the conduct of the teacher here constituted "cause" for dismissal, saying,

She should have foreseen that the incident would provoke public indignation and that her letter, if publicized, as it was, would tend to undermine the morale of young men of military age in her classes and among the nation whom she was inviting and encouraging to violate the law. We think

the board was fully justified in finding that a teacher writing such a letter ought not to be permitted to continue as a teacher in the public schools, and having jurisdiction of plaintiff as an employee of the board, it had the right to determine whether her conduct constituted cause for dismissal.

The court also ruled that the entire board need not be present at every hearing of the evidence in a dismissal case. The board could properly appoint a committee of its members to hear the evidence, and take action on the basis of the committee's report. The statute requires a majority vote for dismissal, and makes no provision with respect to how many board members need hear the evidence.

Removal—Judicial Restraint—Absence of Threatened Dismissal. State employees cannot maintain an action to prevent removal by their superiors when such removal is not actually threatened. (*Hayes v. Harris*, 42 Atl. [2d] 51 [Pa.]) A statute purported to place employees under the jurisdiction of another department and transferred the power of appointment and the fixing of compensation. The employees holding the positions involved in the change of jurisdiction claimed their positions might be abolished and that others were sought to be appointed in their place. No dismissals, however, had been made. Commenting on this situation the court said:

The bill contains no allegations sufficient in law or equity to establish an existing cause of action. No discharge has been made, nor has there been any decrease in compensation; to the contrary, appellants are presently performing the same duties and receiving the same compensation. The only change in their status is that they are now under the control of the Secretary of Revenue instead of the Auditor General. No interest is shown which justifies an attack upon the constitutionality of the expenditures authorized by the statute. It is a bill brought in anticipation of possible action which may or may not be taken by the Secretary of Revenue. The bill having failed to aver a valid cause of action was properly dismissed.

Removal—Incidental Powers—Suspension. The power to remove necessarily involves the power to suspend temporarily pending a determination of the issue of removal, the court found in *State v. Strunk*, 18 N. W. (2d) 457 (Minn.).

The suspension of an officer pending his trial for misconduct, so far as to tie his hands for the time being, seems to be universally accepted as a fair, salutary, and often necessary incident of the situation. His retention at such a time of all the advantages and opportunities afforded by official position may enable and encourage him, not only to persist in the rebellious practices complained of, but also to seriously embarrass his triers in their approaches to the ends of justice.

The court ruled that the governor of the state had power to suspend as an incident of his power to remove, and also had power to appoint an acting officer in place of the one who was suspended.

Removal—Judicial Review—Jury Trial. Jury trials are usually not required in cases involving discharged employees. The usual procedure on judicial review of the discharge is for the court to inquire whether there was substantial evidence to justify a discharge. Even then the courts will hesitate to review the factual evidence *de novo* but rather review the issues of law involved. In Mississippi, however, a statute dealing with removal of policemen by municipal authorities expressly provides that the accused shall have a trial by jury, and this was held in *McLeod v. Civil Service Commission of Jackson*, 21 So. (2d) 916 (Miss.), to require "... a trial *de novo* before a jury under the guidance and control of the trial judge, each of these branches of the court discharging the same functions that it always does in trials therein."

The court reversed and remanded a removal case for failure of the court to require a jury trial. As the court pointed out, "The appellant's motion for a jury trial was not necessary, for in the absence of waiver of the right, it was the duty of the trial judge to try the case only with the assistance of a jury."

Pensions—Payment—Insufficiency of Funds. The charter of the city of Long Beach, California, provides for the payment of policemen's pensions out of a designated fund, to be set up in a specified manner, and known as the "Disability, Relief and Pension Fund." In *England v. City of Long Beach*, 158 Pac. (2d) 589 (Cal.), the court concluded that the obligation to pay a pension was not a general obligation of the city, but was limited to whatever amount was available in the specified fund. The court reasserted the familiar rule that no vested rights are impaired where a pension is not paid. The interest of a police officer in a prospective pension is not a property right, but "a mere expectancy, created by the law, and liable to be revoked or destroyed by the same authority." Consequently, the court denied a writ of mandamus to compel the city to transfer to the pension fund an amount necessary to pay petitioner's pension. Stated the court:

It is noteworthy that the City of Long Beach has at no time denied its liability in respect to petitioner's pension, and this obligation, together with all other like pensions, is subject to payment and it is asserted will be paid as soon as the money therefor is available in the designated relief and pension fund. By no theory of implied powers, liberal construction or other suggested hypothesis can the plain reading of the charter provisions be changed, and, in the circumstances, the court is without power to intervene.

Pensions—Waiver by Acceptance of Workmen's Compensation Award—Laches. In the absence of clear statutory language to the contrary, a munici-

pal employee does not waive his right to a pension by the acceptance of a workmen's compensation award. The rule is clear that pension statutes are to be liberally construed in favor of those to whom rights are granted, and that such rights may not be taken away by strained construction.

(*Tyra v. Bd. of Police and Fire Pension Com'rs*, 155 Pac. [2d] 365 [Cal.].) The court observed that the only provision of the pension statute dealing with workmen's compensation law provided, not that acceptance of compensation waives a pension, but rather the converse: acceptance of

pension waives right to compensation award. The court therefore ruled that "respondent's contention that petitioner waived his right to a pension because he had accepted workmen's compensation is not well founded."

The court also ruled that the petition for a pension stated a cause of action, and did not show on its face that the action was barred by the statute of limitations. The court ruled that time should not be counted from the date of the injury, but from the time that it was discovered that the injury was permanently disabling.

BOOK REVIEWS

Personnel Relations: Their Application in a Democracy. J. E. Walters. The Ronald Press. New York, 1945. 545p., \$4.50.

During the past two decades, almost a score of general texts in personnel management have appeared. Each has attempted to set forth the major premises and the objectives for the successful management of personnel and to summarize, for the student as well as for the practitioner, the methods and techniques which contribute to those objectives. Each of these texts has no doubt contributed something to our knowledge about personnel administration, and one or two of them have been genuine "ground breakers;" but the wide interest which greets each new effort in this field testifies to the general feeling that we do not yet have a master theory for personnel management and that methods and techniques require constant reexamination and appraisal.

Mr. Walters' *Personnel Relations* is concerned with "both principles and practice in the field of personnel relations as it is today." Moreover, he is especially interested in presenting "the consideration of these principles and practices in a setting of democracy, with an endeavor to give a realistic understanding of what that implies and means for everyone concerned." This emphasis upon the role of personnel management in a democratic society is the characteristic which most clearly distinguishes his text from its predecessors. Since he is almost exclusively concerned with private rather than public personnel management, the point of view is as novel as it is long overdue. "In a democracy," he writes in his introductory chapter, "the dignity and worth of the individual are of supreme importance."

With this principle as his major premise, the author proceeds to discuss the main determinants of personnel relations. These are, he believes, the workers, management, and the government through its statutes and rules. Worker participation in personnel relations he sees as depending primarily upon labor unions and collective bargaining. Consequently, he would maximize their scope and responsibility. Management participation in personnel relations is seen as accomplished best through expert personnel administration. Government is seen as the guarantor of minimum standards in a democracy. "In a democracy," he concludes, "the management of personnel relations should strive to grant all of the rights of

democracy and endeavor to lead, not 'drive,' the employee." He then summarizes the activities in personnel relations that will make industry "more democratic without relinquishing management's prerogatives," as follows:

1. Management can inform its employees of its personnel relations policies and discuss them with the employees, to whom it can at least grant the right to be heard on those policies.
2. Management can employ its workers more systematically, scientifically, or considerably so they will be better adapted to the company and the job, and thereby better satisfied in their work. Greater job satisfaction should result.
3. It can determine the value of the jobs by systematic job evaluation, so that fair wages will be paid for those jobs according to the value of the job and the effort put forth. It can administer wages and salaries fairly.
4. It can promote on the basis of merit and seniority by means of ratings, tests, promotional charts, records, etc., and endeavor to eliminate "politics," personal favoritism, or family relationship if it exists.
5. It can determine the opinions of employees and base its policies and practices on these opinions within the limits of necessary standards.
6. It can bargain collectively with representatives of its employees freely organized and elected by the majority. It can be cooperative with labor unions.
7. It can provide training and education which will cause each employee to know his job well, to accomplish his utmost for himself and his company, and to develop himself.
8. It can provide for the health and safety of employees.
9. It can encourage suggestions from employees by adequate rewards and fair considerations promote thrift, recreational activities, and other services which will advance the individuality of the employee.

Twelve chapters, comprising almost half the text, are devoted to examination and analysis of personnel relations techniques: employment sources and testing, job evaluation, personnel ratings, promotions and transfer, training, morale, safety, employee services, etc. These chapters are informative and several are rich in illustrative material. The reader is struck with both similarities and contrasts between public and private personnel management. Leadership clearly varies from technique to technique.

Mr. Walters has written a text which will have its greatest value for the practitioner in private business personnel administration. To such practitioners, it offers a breadth of concept and a progressive point of view not found in other general sources. It presents, too, an unusually wide scope and completeness in its treatment of methods. To the readers of this journal, also, it provides interesting evidence of the parallel streams by which public and private personnel

management are, though at varying speed depending upon time, circumstance and leadership, approaching a more democratic and therefore a more meaningful and more fruitful theory of personnel management.

WALLACE S. SAYRE

Office of Personnel
Office of Price Administration

Human Relations in Industry. Burleigh B. Gardner. Richard D. Irwin. Chicago, Illinois. 1945. 318p. \$3.75.

Mr. Gardner went backward. In so doing he went forward, and thereby made a valuable contribution to the literature of personnel administration.

Ordinarily to say that an author went backward is to provoke hostilities. However, your reviewer does not expect to be resented by Mr. Gardner because he is going to stress the fact that Mr. Gardner went backward for good purpose—to resurrect and advance a fundamental of personnel administration which has been underemphasized in current practice. Disconcerting as it may be to some, Mr. Gardner believes that personnel administrators should be personnel conscious. The idea is not new. In its early days personnel management was largely concerned with making Bill work with Hank and making them both work for the company. It viewed everyone concerned as a human being and patterned suasions accordingly. As far back as 1923 a widely accepted text, in defining the field of personnel administration, emphasized the fact that in modern employment the old personal contact between employer and employee had to a great extent been lost. It stressed the fact that in the absence of this contact the minds of the workers as well as their bodies must be constantly considered in management; that if men are not so managed as to be production minded they are, for all practical purposes, apt to be "in absentia on the job." It then advanced a "human" conception of labor and suggested the wisdom in personnel administration of truly dealing with men as human beings both in deference to their inalienable rights and in the interest of maximum production.

What has happened to this idea? Almost every personnel administrator knows, but reference to what happened may at this point help us better to understand Mr. Gardner. Industrial personnel management gave some attention to human relations but it was spotty and often unprofessional, and out of the effort has come surprisingly little science and very little literature. Meanwhile public personnel administration was wrestling with problems peculiarly its own. Coming out of the

cocoon of civil service, with strong emphasis on recruitment, it gave much attention to examinations. Despite inevitable governmental red tape, systems of job classification and many essential techniques have been developed. There is historical explanation for what has happened but it must be acknowledged that human relations generally have been subordinated to technical considerations in the personnel programs of most public agencies. In neither area of personnel administration, public nor private, does one observe the development and practice of a science of human relations such as one would have predicted twenty-five years ago.

Mr. Gardner was aware of the eclipse of human relations in contemporary personnel management. What's more important, he decided to do something about it. Hence *Human Relations in Industry*, an innocuous appearing little volume of 304 pages, the reading of which will, we suspect, leave many readers sadder and wiser. If that is the effect we submit that greater wisdom in these quarters is worth a touch of melancholia.

The author constructs his dissertation around a factory which he chooses to regard as typical. He recognizes the social autonomy of the work unit and discusses it as a social system, giving attention to characteristic attitudes and reactions beginning with the Big Boss and coming down the pyramid dealing at each step with the superintendents, the division chiefs, the department chiefs, the foremen and the workers.

It is rather refreshing to get away for awhile from contemplation of organization charts and technical procedures, which prescribe an artificial and sometimes nonexistent relationship, and give principal attention to the psychological factors behind the scenes. It gives one a new feeling that he is dealing with reality. In the discussion on "The Line of Authority and Communication," the author deals in fair part with factors which we find infrequently, if ever, mentioned in text but which are very familiar to practical operating men, and he does not overlook apple polishing, the short circuit, the alibi and the grapevine. In this very realistic manner the author discusses the functions and problems at each level of the working organization, and as related to each segment of the structure, the union, minority groups, wage and wage systems, wage incentives and restriction of output. He analyzes the individual in the structure, his place and pattern, problems of adjustment and symptoms of disturbance. He deals with the industrial relations organization and personnel counseling, making especial reference, of course, to the counseling at the Western Electric Company, where the author spent five years in

charge of employee relations research. Problems of cooperation are briefly set forth and a final chapter is devoted to emphasizing the importance of understanding the social structure as well as the technical structure of organization. The book is well outlined and sufficiently indexed.

Almost every book has features which limit its utility as applied to a restricted group of readers, and *Human Relations in Industry* is no exception. Almost certainly the author did not have public personnel administration in mind when he wrote. In consequence many of the factors associated with public administration were ignored. Perhaps it adheres too strictly to a preconceived type of industrial organization to satisfy all readers in the field of personnel management. Your reviewer does not see how the author could have escaped either limitation. Had he attempted to do so it would almost surely have been at the sacrifice of validity. The author has introduced case material in amounts and at times which balance the text and project its theme very acceptably. Most of this case material came from a common source and could not be applied with assurance in more general discussion. Mr. Gardner knows very well what goes on in the reactions of personnel in a certain work situation and he has rather faithfully made that available to us.

This is not a book of prescriptions. It might be said that its approach is in the main diagnostic rather than therapeutic, yet it is not the mechanized diagnosis so often associated with time study. As is often true in such an approach the text may appear primary and obvious. We believe either designation is inaccurate in its implications. The author has striven to present accurately human reactions in the work situations under discussion. He has presented them with patient attention to detail. If the result is primary it is because life is like that. And can the facts be so obvious when one considers that we have so often ignored them?

Human Relations in Industry will give the public personnel administrator no instruction tailored to situations in public personnel administration. However, there are many common factors in the human elements of operation wherever people work. The public personnel administrator will find in the volume many situations essentially similar to those with which he is dealing every day. The book leaves it largely to the reader to adapt and apply in his own area of operation the factors of human relationship which it portrays. It provides an organized approach to the problems applicable to almost any organization. In the hands of the sophisticated it will prove thought-provoking and worthwhile.

The most regrettable thing about this book—if there is anything regrettable about it—is the fact that it will impress least those personnel officers who need it most. We dare say that many a personnel officer with shop or field experience will read this book, review some of his recent decisions at the policy level, and find his face acquiring a roseate hue not entirely attributable to ultra violet rays. To the personnel officer who has been denied shop or field experience and who must rely entirely on technical training many of the implications of this text will be lost.

Perhaps Mr. Gardner will one day go to the factory again and come back with a case book which will to some extent serve as a substitute for experience and further reduce the blind spots which all of us, experienced and inexperienced, are apt to acquire when facing problems of human relations.

BLAINE HOOVER

Chicago Park District
Chicago, Illinois

Guaranteed Annual Wages. Jack Chernick and George C. Hellickson. University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, Minnesota, 1945. 146p. \$2.50.

Guaranteed annual wages offer an attractive possibility for stabilizing employment and achieving many of the common goals of the worker and his employer. The experience with such wage plans indicates that the benefits are real and significant, the disadvantages generally concerned with limitations on ingenuity and willingness to make changes. What can labor, management, and the general public expect from a general acceptance of the guaranteed annual wage principle? It is not, of course, possible to anticipate completely the effects of wide application of such a policy, but there has been enough experience under these schemes to allow some estimates of what would result from their extension.

Chernick and Hellickson, an interesting combination of an economist and a newspaperman, have written a study on the subject for popular consumption. The authors' interest and faith in their subject is expressed on every page. Occasionally the integration of economics and journalism is incomplete, and the volume is limited in that it is most concerned with the "big three" of guaranteed income plans—Hormel, Nunn-Bush, and Procter and Gamble. The subject is an important one and the treatment, although brief, is more than adequate. In addition, it is extremely timely in the present controversy on how we will get and keep full employment and national prosperity. It is therefore appropriate that the implications

of a guaranteed annual wage be considered from three points of view—labor, management, and the general economy.

Labor. Labor, the original expendable, enters the postwar world with many problems. There is little question but that workers have achieved a new, and to them, advantageous distribution of income during the past few years. In addition, the question of job security has been largely an academic one in a war environment which practically abolished unemployment. Where does labor wish to go now? Shall emphasis be placed on retention of work, steady income, security? Shall the fight for a greater proportionate share of the national income and wealth be continued?

It may be that security and a greater share of the national income go hand in hand, and constitute a common goal rather than alternatives. There is, however, the possibility that security will be purchased at the expense of greater participation in the national income. Labor will work to achieve both ends, but the emphasis on one or the other will color labor-management relations.

There is no question but that the major annual wage plans have worker support and cooperation. In two of the three plans most often cited, Hormel and Nunn-Bush, the workers are effectively organized—in the former as a CIO affiliate, in the latter an independent union. Although Procter and Gamble has generally withstood organization, there is a considerable sense of solidarity among the workers. The Hormel management has stated that guaranteed annual wage plans require employee participation to a degree which can be obtained only from organized workers. At Nunn-Bush the workers' positions approximate that of co-ownership and they participate generally in the plant management. The Procter and Gamble plan, which makes the fewest direct commitments, and is hedged with restrictions on guarantees, utilizes employee participation to the smallest extent.

It would appear, then, that in order to make a plan of this nature work, the employees must do something in addition to demonstrating a willingness to accept its benefits. In an environment of free enterprise, labor must demonstrate that a guarantee to them of income throughout the year will not lower management returns. It must be good business to pay a worker all year round. This requires workers to put forth a real effort to accomplish their assigned tasks effectively and rapidly. Management thinks, from the evidence thus far recorded, that the secure worker is a better worker, a more efficient producer.

Certainly there are social gains for labor in guaranteed incomes. Individual planning becomes possible. Commitments may be made con-

cerning home purchases. Perhaps most important, the fear of unemployment or, more accurately, income stoppage is largely removed. What this would mean if extended to a large proportion of wage earners is hard to say. It seems, though, that many basic frustrations might be alleviated or removed and a new role obtained for the worker—one in which he is no longer a mere expendable or cost factor but an integral part of the complex industrial mechanism, influencing his own future, sharing in the rewards of his own labor, secure in his position.

Management. Industry will, of course, seek a *quid pro quo* if it is to pay industrial workers on other than a day basis. It is obvious that industrial commitments guaranteeing wages constitute a considerable limitation on managerial discretion and authority. Management will want something in return for the possible lessened profits such guarantees may involve. Those organizations which have tried schemes of this nature think they have received returns justifying the adoption of such plans. These returns may be summarized thus: more effective individual work from workers (this may surprise those who see a direct and positive correlation between slothfulness and security in employment), savings resulting from lowered turnover in employees, and, perhaps most important, better management practices forced upon the organization by virtue of the commitment to keep men at work. There seems to be general agreement among employers on this point that the challenge to keep workers continuously in pay status pays dividends in that it forces new and better methods and policies to be adopted. These, of course, benefit the consumer as well as the industry and its workers. The publicity value of socially acceptable employment policies should not be overlooked. Hormel, Nunn-Bush, and Procter and Gamble have profited greatly from the innumerable references to their pay policies. If any large unit of a major industry should announce adoption of a guaranteed annual wage plan, the resultant publicity would probably exceed its annual advertising allotment in value.

It is unfortunate that cost accounting methods are not well enough developed to determine more accurately the value of various personnel practices, including guaranteed income. If they were, it would be possible to validate the statements of various firms concerning the dollar and cents return on stabilized employment. In the meantime, it is sufficient to indicate that the firms which have experimented with guaranteed income plans express the belief that the returns are considerable.

The General Economy. There is some disagreement concerning the possible effect on the general

economy of guarantees of income. Those who hold with the "over-savings" theory of depression, welcome the data that shows little or no savings increase upon the introduction of such schemes. Instead it appears that there is acceleration of credit buying particularly in the industries having high "multiplier" effect. If a large proportion of workers in the country were guaranteed their incomes on an annual basis, depressions might generally be headed off, or at least considerably alleviated.

Some economists believe that the limitations on administrative discretion brought about through guarantees on income will restrict enterprise and create rigid requirements that will make for lessened business activity. If wage guarantees are brought about and enforced by government, the burden on cyclic and seasonal industries may be more than they can take. This is only saying that we must proceed slowly and intelligently in this matter, taking cognizance of the differences in industrial practice which exist.

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BOOK NOTES

The Municipal Year Book, 1945. Clarence E. Ridley and Orin F. Nolting, editors. International City Managers' Association, 1313 East 60th Street, Chicago, 1945. 603p. \$8.50.

The 1945 "book of the year" for municipalities has recently been issued by the International City Managers' Association. Containing its regular features of invaluable information for public officials, this twelfth annual issue of the *Municipal Year Book* has several new sections as well. The tabulations of personnel data for all cities over 10,000 population now include information on hours of work and overtime pay, as well as a very thorough treatment of retirement systems in effect in each city. Tabulated material on civil service programs in municipalities has been brought up to date, as has the useful directory of personnel officers in cities over 10,000. The volume has continuing value to personnel administrators and technicians as a reference manual of current information on municipal developments and trends.

Work Simplification. Public Administration Service. 1313 East 60th Street, Chicago. 1945. 49p. \$1.00.

Readers of *Public Personnel Review* will recognize this report as the story of the work simplification program of the United States Bureau of the Budget, described by Harry H. Fite in his article in the April, 1945 issue of the *Review*. The work simplification program is essentially a training program to enable supervisors to analyze problems of work organization and assignment, and to apply practical methods for solving them. This pamphlet has been designed for direct use in connection with the operation of such a program. In addition to a reprinting of Mr. Fite's explanatory article, the publication also includes reproductions of the materials prepared for use by those taking part in the work simplification training sessions.

Veteran's Guide. Dallas Johnson. Public Affairs Committee, Inc. 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, New York. 1945. 32p. 10 cents.

In an informal tone, this pamphlet describes the process of change from serviceman to civilian. As such, it is a handy little tool in the kit of anyone concerned with the counseling of veterans, whether the counseling concerns vocation, employment, financial problems, or whatever. Beginning with military discharge, the *Guide* points out to the veteran the various opportunities of which he may avail himself, including higher education, vocational training, and financial assistance in the forms of loans. It is especially useful as a guide to the general situations which the man recently discharged from service will encounter. Beginning with the time a serviceman is to receive his discharge, the booklet leads him to the separation center, describing the processing he will undergo there, such as a physical examination, counseling, certification of discharge, and mustering out pay. Then, as a civilian, he is guided back into his community and familiarized with his obligations as a citizen—taxes, insurance, and legal responsibilities. The veteran is also made aware of certain privileges to which he is entitled and advised how best to protect his family against financial insecurity.

ARTICLE ABSTRACTS

PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION— WARTIME ASPECTS

76. Ordway, Samuel H. Jr. **The veteran in the civil service.** *The Annals* 238 March, 1945: 133-39.—Since the introduction of the merit plan into the federal public service, controversy has centered around the veteran problem. Veteran pressure groups seek extension in coverage and amount of preference regardless of qualification for the position sought. Evidence of this pressure may be found in Public Law 359, known as the Veterans' Preference Act of 1944. This law will have a profoundly adverse effect on efforts to attract highly qualified and educated citizens to enter the public service as a career. There is good reason to hope that in the decade immediately following this war many highly competent veterans applying for public jobs will bring competition that will supply qualified appointees. As the number of misfits, failures and dismissed veterans increase in proportion to the number of veteran applicants, however, the civil service will become waterlogged with the old and decrepit, while the young blood will still have small chance of selection. The administration of government will deteriorate as the less qualified are appointed and excessive security founded on preference rather than merit takes the incentive from effort. From among the methods the government could use to reward or pension its veterans, preference legislation will prove most costly. Without public support and constant vigilance against the further pressure of veteran groups, it will be unable to preserve the merit system and public administration in the United States will fail of its desired ends. Relief may lie in the establishment of a thorough and continuous in-service training program, with periodic examinations based thereon, to weed out those who do not keep abreast of changing techniques, trends and practice in their field.—Charles F. Ream.

77. White, William Alonson. **Reemployment of the psychoneurotic ex-soldier.** *Psychiatry* 8 (1) February, 1945: 3-8.—A questionnaire sent to 256 psychoneurotic ex-soldiers of this war regarding employment and adjustment to working conditions after discharge in 1943 from the Valley Forge General Hospital, Phoenixville, Pennsylvania, resulted in replies from 142. Of this number, ninety per cent were found to be employed and had secured employment within 5.3 weeks after discharge. Twenty-one per cent reported that a neuropsychiatric discharge was a hindrance in securing employment. However, all of these persons were employed at the time of reply. Type of employment secured was broken down into five groups: (1) laboring, (2) industrial, (3) unclassified (truck drivers, electricians, printers, et cetera), (4) clerical, and (5) agricultural. Job turnover because of exacerbation of neurotic symptoms was highest in the industrial and laboring

groups, intermediate in the unclassified, and lowest in the clerical and agricultural groups. Exacerbating factors, in order of frequency, were: noise, speed, strenuousness, and heat. There was a drift to clerical and agricultural work after failure to adjust to other types of employment. The replies indicated a need for better placement, including the use of selective placement devices developed by the War Manpower Commission.—Bradford G. White.

PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION— GENERAL ASPECTS

78. Deming, Dorothy. **The merit system belongs to you.** *Survey Midmonthly* LXXXI (5) May, 1945: 143-45.—The problem of government today is how to make the merit system work better than it does. The rapidity with which health and social work positions have been placed under the merit system has created stress within the machinery, some of which still belongs to the "horse and buggy" days of administration. Important weaknesses of the merit system in the public health and social welfare fields are: (1) failure to make the public service interesting to ambitious young people starting a career, (2) persistence of residence restrictions when no qualified residents apply for examinations, (3) certification of eligibles by the "rule of one" rather than by the rule of three, five or eight, (4) exemption of certain classes from examinations—a policy justified for very highly skilled jobs with a restricted supply of candidates but dangerous if made generally applicable, (5) too short probationary periods for upper level positions, (6) extension of provisional temporary appointments until they become virtually permanent, (7) failure to provide a fair retirement plan, (8) promotion based on length of service only, instead of clearcut qualifications for each class, and (9) too generous interpretation of veterans' preferences. Social agencies and professional groups are beginning to realize their responsibility in making merit systems work better by giving merit system administrations competent professional assistance in developing adequate job specifications, preparing examination material, appraising education and experience of candidates, and recruiting qualified applicants. To date, about 95 examinations have been compiled by a subcommittee of the American Public Health Association for use in 19 states. There are about 19 civil service committees of state nurses' associations cooperating with civil service agencies. The health and welfare agencies have a joint responsibility for enlarging public support for our civil service system.—Achille R. Albouze.

79. Farmer, Charles. **Postwar job of employment service.** *Personnel Journal* 23 (18) April, 1945: 362-69.—The United States Employment Service will have an extremely important function to perform after the war

is over. A strong and effective public employment service is a necessity if the gradual demobilization and reconversion of the war economy is to be accomplished with minimum dislocation and suffering. A nationwide public employment system will have to carry the load in providing job information for veterans and war workers, in preventing the development of stranded areas, and in contributing to the enormous training and retraining programs required for transferring veterans and war workers to useful peace-time occupations. The main objectives of the United States Employment Service in the post-war period will be: (1) to provide fully effective employment service facilities such as recording the work abilities of applicants, placement of workers, counseling, and employment information in all communities; (2) to facilitate prompt re-employment of demobilized veterans and war workers displaced as a result of production cutbacks; (3) to facilitate the transfer of workers from labor surplus to labor shortage areas; and (4) to provide statistics on employment opportunities and labor supply which can be used in national, state, and local planning.—Charles W. Fredriksen.

80. Latham, Earl. *Executive management and the federal field service. Public Administration Review* V (1) Winter, 1945: 16-27. The existence of the problem of making numerous federal agencies work together as a harmonious whole has been known since the beginning of the development of big government, and since the end of World War I various efforts have been made to meet the problem at both the central office and field levels. The creation in 1939 of the Executive Office of the President and the transfer of the Bureau of the Budget to the Executive Office opened the way for a fresh approach to the problems of executive management and the federal field service. This approach took shape in 1943 with the establishment on a trial basis of four field offices of the Bureau of the Budget to perform the following functions: (1) to consult with federal officials in the field for the purpose of getting better coordination of federal programs and better relations among the federal agencies in the field; (2) to consult with officials of state and local governments on the operation of federal programs of concern to them and to report to bureau headquarters problems arising in these relationships, with recommendations for their solution; (3) to examine and recommend improvements in the utilization of supplies and equipment in the field; and (4) to make administrative studies on the initiation of the field offices or, at the request of the bureau staff, to make recommendations for more efficient operations and to report to bureau headquarters those problems requiring special study or action or a policy statement from headquarters. The experiment, though faced with many problems of both internal and external relationships, has made both tangible and intangible contributions to the efficiency of the federal field service.—H. Richard Rice.

81. Lilienthal, David E. *Modern tools for a modern job. Personnel Administration* 7 (8) April, 1945: 1-5.—The Tennessee Valley Authority set out to perform a

new and modern task. For such an undertaking Congress and the President invented a new kind of government implement—the Regional Development Corporation. In creating the TVA, Congress adopted and carefully wrote into law the basic principles and practices of modern management similar to those which American business has found essential. The complexities of our governmental procedure are such that over-centralization and the multiplicity of "clearances" and approvals required before anything can be done have bred intolerable delays, jurisdictional rows, and the policy of "passing the buck." The essential reason why laws setting up governmental agencies have failed to follow modern principles of management is that legislation has followed the principle of directing what may not be done. Modern management, on the other hand, is affirmative and initiatory. It is in the process of defining, with skill and sense, what is to be done and with the fixing of responsibility for results, with wide freedom for judgment in the managers as to how it may best be done, that you have the essence of the best modern management. The TVA legislation defined the things that were to be done, such as a 9-foot minimum channel, the maximum use of power consistent with other uses of the river, agricultural and industrial development, etc. Congress did not attempt to handle the detail of fixing power rates, but directed the policy that TVA should observe in fixing those rates. Who was to be employed and how they were to be selected was not written into the law, but there was a stipulation that employment was to be on the basis of merit without political consideration. Having defined the job and laid down the broad policies, Congress went further and fixed upon one agency the responsibility for results in the development of all resources of the river, not just flood control, or power, or navigation, but all aspects of development. This method of fixing responsibility, regrettably still a novelty in many areas of public administration, is the best antidote for buck-passing and alibis for failure to get results. The efficiency of personnel, elimination of health hazards, land buying, construction, and countless other aspects of TVA rest solely with TVA. Whatever the shortcomings in TVA's management, whatever delays, waste, and operating inefficiency there have been, are the direct responsibility of the Board of TVA itself. The effect that these principles would have if applied to the traditional federal departments is beyond the scope of this article, but discussion and study on this matter is needed. The people's everyday life is now too intimately related to the way the government functions for this problem to be ignored any longer.—Irving Gold.

82. Unsigned. *Public employment and pay rolls in the United States. Monthly Labor Review* 60 (2) February, 1945: 243-260.—The general upward trend in public employment and pay rolls between 1929 and 1939 may be expected to reappear after the war, following a brief period in which curtailment of federal activity will cause total government employment and pay rolls to fall substantially from wartime levels. The prewar tendency toward increase and the prospect of

an upward spurt in state and local activities plus the current expanded size of the federal government indicate that the gradual increase in total public employment will be resumed from levels higher than those established in 1939. State and local governments will probably reassume their prewar importance. They accounted for well over three-fourths of total public employment in 1939. Local agencies alone should again supply the greater part of all public services, but their share of total public employment may be reduced to one-half, as compared with three-fifths in 1939, because state governments are expected to grow more rapidly than local governments, especially in the fields of highway construction, social insurance, and health insurance. Public employment of all kinds increased 30 per cent between 1929 and 1939, from 3,065,800 to 3,978,700; and average monthly pay rolls rose 28 per cent, from 379 million to 487 million dollars. The per capita ratio of public employment rose from a monthly average of 250 to 302 per 10,000. The average monthly pay for non-federal employees ranged from \$158.00 in New York in 1939 to \$53.00 in Mississippi. Federal payments averaged \$162.00 per employee in 1929 and \$156.00 in 1939. (Graphs and charts are included, showing trends in employment and salaries.)—*Robert M. Hart.*

83. Unsigned. Trends in municipal personnel practices. *Public Management* 27 (5) May, 1945: 132-36.—Municipal employment has decreased 10 per cent in the last two years but salary raises have increased the total pay roll approximately 15 per cent. The turnover problem continues to be acute. The normal work week has been increased. About 85 per cent of cities over 10,000 allow overtime pay for skilled and unskilled workers, while in 75 per cent of the cities reporting, there is no plan for overtime pay to clerical employees. There has been increased emphasis on in-service training. At the end of 1944, 81 per cent of all the cities over 10,000 had retirement plans. Nearly one-half of the systems were adopted during the last 10 years. Employees in 58 per cent of the cities over 10,000 belong to employee organizations as compared with 50 per cent in 1942. Fifty-four of the cities have a written agreement with a labor union covering management-employee relations. Among post-war problems are: re-employment of veterans; large-scale recruiting; and intensified in-service training. (Article contains charts showing trends over longer periods of years.)—*Ray Mullins.*

PERSONNEL AGENCY MANAGEMENT

84. Corson, John J. The use of statistics in management. *Advanced Management* 9 (2) April-June, 1944: 74-78.—Consideration here of the use of statistics in management means any form of quantitative thinking and is not necessarily limited to the narrower concept of tabulated data and mathematical formulae of the professional statistician. Statistics aid in the formulation of policy, the development of the program, and the planning and laying out of the work, as well as supplying the basis for control through an analysis of

the current state of management. Statistics are an aid in effectively communicating to associates and supervisors the reason or basis for the procedure. Statistics can aid in resolving differences of opinion by enabling the administrator to substitute facts for the emotions and prejudices which are often at the root of disagreement. Statistics are not limited in their use. Even in fields of research, legal counsel, or policy formulation, statistics are essential to thinking through the tasks to be performed and in planning for their accomplishment. Such creative workers as economists, lawyers, writers, and the like can use statistics to advantage in planning their activities. The use of statistics in personnel can go beyond mere enumeration of the number and transactions of employees by contributing to the development of such elusive qualities as employee satisfaction. Leadership, involving two relatively definable aspects, is dependent for its effectiveness on the use of statistics. A leader needs statistics to indicate what accomplishments are to be sought and how they are to be sought. He needs statistics in communicating the organization's objectives to the personnel. A chart or a few statistics to illustrate the important points can do as much as, or more than, a long discussion in capturing the employees' interest. In the final analysis it is his possession of the fund of carefully marshalled and accumulated statistical knowledge that gives the real administrator the right to the title.—*Adrian E. Gory.*

85. Gordon, Joel. Operating statistics as a tool of management. *Public Administration Review* 4 (3) Summer, 1944: 189-96.—In large-scale enterprise the executive is divorced from the details of operation and must increasingly rely on the operating statistician to supply information needed for policy formulation, standard setting, planning and control. To provide the necessary data the operating statistics and research unit combines quantitative measurement techniques with knowledge of operations. This unit must be an integral part of the executive office in order to give management current data on how much of the job is done, how efficiently it is being done, and how effectively the objectives of the program are being achieved. It must have the authority to synthesize administrative and statistical records and reports to eliminate confusion, duplication of effort, and inaccurate and incomplete results. The statistics and research unit has a dual function which creates a difficult relationship. It is dependent upon the operating officials for the information necessary for its reports which evaluate the performance of the operating units and it services these units with studies which they request. To be an effective tool of top management, the statistics and research unit must set up systems and schedules which will produce timely and simply presented reports which are useful in satisfying both the urgent and the long term needs of management and operating officials.—*Mildred Stier.*

CLASSIFICATION; PAY

86. Balderston, C. Canby. What has been happening to employee compensation? *Personnel* 21 (5) March, 1945: 266-71.—Despite the absence of valid and complete statistical information, certain trends in

wages and salaries can be perceived. Pressure to raise wage rates is tremendous but does not operate evenly throughout the country. The weekly "take-home" of non-supervisory employees have increased faster than have basic wage rates, and employee rates have increased more rapidly than job rates because of the rapid promotion of many employees. Wage rates for the less skilled jobs have risen faster than those of the highly skilled non-supervisory jobs. Although geographic differentials have been perpetuated they have been modified by the growth of wartime industries which raised rates rapidly before the "wage freeze," and by the standardization of rates for certain industries over large sections of the country. Similarly, inter-industry differentials have been maintained but modified, although intra-industry differentials have been narrowed. Sex and race differentials have decreased greatly. The use of financial incentives has been extended and piecework earnings have risen. Wage policy has been formalized at both the non-supervisory and supervisory levels by the establishment of definite rate schedules, often based upon systematic job evaluation. Rate ranges have been replacing single job rates. Shift differentials and vacations with pay are granted much more extensively. Severance pay has been authorized in a small number of cases and reasonable sick-leave privileges have been approved. "Real" earnings have risen for some groups, dropped for others. In general the quality of wage and salary setting has improved, but there has been a widespread failure to bargain effectively during wage negotiations, management and employees having joined hands to secure higher rates without keeping employees aware of the relation of wage rates and employee efficiency to unit costs.—Gordon W. Peterson.

87. Corsini, Raymond. *Functions of the prison psychologist*. *Journal of Consulting Psychology* 9 (2) March-April, 1945: 101-104.—The use of psychology in prisons is still relatively new. At most there is only one psychologist to every two thousand prisoners. Also, while standards are relatively high in some states, an elevation of requirements would be universally beneficial. Psychological work in prisons falls into three major categories: (1) the securing of at least minimal psychometric information, (2) the giving of educational, vocational, and personal guidance, and (3) the making of special and regular reports and evaluations affecting prisoners' work assignments, parole, and commutation. The second function listed is probably of highest value but psychologist-prisoner relationships are frequently hampered by the psychologist's official role as well as by lack of time. The psychologist may function relatively independently or as part of a team of workers, the best system being a flexible one which allows him to function on his own or as part of a team of psychologists, psychiatrists, social workers, physicians, and other professionally skilled persons. In order to establish the highest standards, pay for psychologists and other professional personnel must be at a level to attract the most competent. Not only must the prison psychologist have a Ph.D. degree or its equivalent, with

specialization in applied psychology, sociology, economics, or the biological sciences, but he must bring a variety of experience, both in and out of psychology, which has brought him into contact with all types of individuals. Further, he must possess a personality enabling him to establish good rapport with many different types of individuals. The prison situation offers qualified psychologists opportunity to study effectively the deviating offender who is torn by conflicting values and to reconstruct with him realistic and socially acceptable goals.—Morton Friedman.

88. Lawton, David F. *Rx for supervision*. *Personnel Administration* 7 (6) February, 1945: 1-8.—The plan discussed here is not directed toward all phases of supervision, but it does attack perhaps the most fundamental one, namely a common understanding on the part of employee and supervisor as to what is expected from the employee during each working day. The plan has been tried and found to work. Classification sheets as written are virtually worthless as tools of supervision. A complete, unambiguous statement of the duties and responsibilities of each job would certainly be helpful in breaking in a new employee, in training understudies, in providing a clear and intelligible agreement between supervisor and employee as to the nature and degree of delegation of authority, in eliminating misunderstandings as to overlapping or conflicting responsibilities, and in calling to the supervisor's attention action which he should take to initiate reclassification of positions and reassignment of employees. After preparation of the work assignment statement by the first-line supervisor and the employee, and approval of it with or without changes by the division chief or regional director, copies would be kept by the employee and his immediate supervisor and changes made to keep it accurate and up to date. Where there were material differences between the work assignment statement and the classification sheet, the former would be referred for classification action. But the preparation of work assignment statements is only half the battle. There must also be a mutual understanding by employee and supervisor as to how much is expected, as to how well the supervisor expects the employee to do what he has to do, and as to what the supervisor looks for with respect to the manner of carrying out assigned tasks and responsibilities. It does not seem unreasonable to ask why the performance standards thus determined should not be reduced to writing. Employees are not clairvoyant. Only if they know in advance, in a fairly specific way, what is expected of them in terms of quality and quantity of performance, and in terms of the manner of performance, can their supervisors reasonably ask them to meet the performance requirements on the basis of which efficiency ratings are made, and on the basis of which the unit's work objectives can properly be met. (The requirements of the provisions of the work assignment and the performance standards programs and a detailed outline or work guide to be used in the preparation of both work assignment statements and standards of performance are presented.)—Michael Levine.

RECRUITMENT; SELECTION; INDUCTION

89. Burton, Arthur and Joel, Walther. **Adult norms for the Watson-Glaser tests of critical thinking.** *The Journal of Psychology* 19 (1) January, 1945: 43-48.—Among people engaged in personnel selection, the lack of suitable tests for measuring administrative ability has been widely recognized. If critical thinking is an important ingredient of administrative ability, the Watson-Glaser Tests of Critical Thinking should be of interest to those who are selecting personnel for professional and administrative positions. The norms presented in this paper are the first available for the Watson-Glaser Tests, Battery I, based on an adult group. The data were obtained by testing 150 applicants for civil service positions in professional and administrative classes which as a rule required graduation from college as one of the minimum qualifications. The median age of the group was 36.9 years. The subjects below the median age made significantly higher mean scores on all four tests of the battery than those above the median age. The norms for adults produced by the study are higher than the Watson-Glaser norms for college seniors, just as the college seniors performed better than the tenth-grade students. These results might indicate that the ability to think critically improves with chronological age. It might also be argued that these results show "critical thinking" to be related to intelligence, since the subjects were perhaps more highly selected with respect to intelligence than a group of students without degrees. Since no plan had been laid from the outset to investigate such questions, however, the obtained data do not give the answers. More extensive norms on all levels are needed and a study of the validity of these tests in the selection of professional and administrative personnel should be made.—*Barbara L. Brattin.*

90. Clarke, Florence H. **You can measure the probability of success as a supervisor.** *Personnel* 23 (11) May, 1945: 353-73.—If reasonably good supervisors are to be produced, they must be selected from those who have "what it takes." Previous studies by Yerkes, Bingham, Bills, and others have indicated that successful supervisors have average or better mental ability; relatively broad interests and abilities; greater vocabulary development than less successful supervisors; and more objectivity in their thinking and action than the average person. A group of over three hundred foremen ranging from successful ones to those with indifferent success, including service foremen, clerical supervisors, meter reading and collection foremen, and district managers, were rated on a supervisory rating scale and given selected standard tests for mental ability, personality, and visual perception. The study revealed significant differences between the average test scores of the four groups studied; a lack of significant relationship between the factors of age, education and supervisory experience and either the test scores or ratings; and finally discrimination by the tests between the good and the indifferent supervisors. The four-step procedure recommended for a more success-

ful selection of supervisors includes: 1. selecting tests and setting up test score standards; 2. selecting a group of candidates for supervisory positions; 3. sifting out unlikely candidates by the use of the tests; 4. final selection of candidates on the basis of such additional factors as their knowledge of the job, their versatility and adaptability, their mental, physical and emotional fitness and stability, and their standing with colleagues and superiors. (Bibliography and tables attached.)—*William B. Davis.*

PLACEMENT; SERVICE STANDARDS AND EVALUATION

91. Lewis, Murray A. and Flood, George G. **Charting supervisory efficiency.** *Personnel Journal* 24 (1) May, 1945: 29-33.—Much of the unrest, low morale, absenteeism and labor turnover in industry, due partially to emergency personnel practices necessitated by the war, can be attributed directly to poor supervision. Although industrial leaders installed Training Within Industry programs comprising Job Relations Training, Job Instruction Training, and Job Methods Training, there was an absence of objective techniques to evaluate the extent to which supervisors were applying the principles stressed in supervisory training courses. A three-division chart would suffice to present graphically much pertinent data concerning supervisory efficiency: (1) The charting of morale, a measurable element, is most conveniently expressed in terms of absenteeism and labor turnover by means of a line or bar graph, making allowances for extremely unfavorable or unhealthy working conditions characteristic of certain operations. (2) Substantiated complaints relating to supervision made to employee counselors, or directly to management, could be appropriately categorized. When a predetermined number of substantiated complaints relating to the same condition are received, a "demerit point" could be entered on the appropriate supervisor's chart. The number of mistakes of major importance made by employees under a supervisor's directions, to some extent reflecting incompetence of the supervisor in the role of an instructor, could also be shown as "demerit points." The number of approved suggestions relating to work simplification, elimination of overlapping functions, consolidation of duties, etc., could be noted as "merit points." (3) The production record of the unit over which the supervisor has responsibility could be easily portrayed by means of a line graph. When any one or a combination of the indices reaches a point of occurrence frequency which represents an abnormal condition, management should consider it essential to counsel with the supervisor and if necessary ultimately reassign him, reduce him in rank, or terminate his services. Statistical data obtained would substantiate disciplinary action taken. Conversely, this substantiation would be of considerable value in promoting and reassigning good supervisors. Knowledge that such data are maintained and used would inject a spirit of competition among supervisors to improve morale. Charting supervisor efficiency is a personnel function which is directly under top management. Charts should be posted conspicuously,

and supervisors should be thoroughly aware of elements taken into consideration in the charting. The installation of the charting system in one segment of an organization will have a salutary effect upon the rest of the organization. If properly inaugurated, publicized, and supported by management, these charts can prove effective in localizing and correcting causes of employee dissatisfaction. (Contains sample chart of supervisory efficiency.)—*Mildred I. Fahlen.*

92. Ray, Thomas A. **Merit rating criticized.** *Personnel Journal* 24 (1) May, 1945: 6-15.—Drastic modifications are needed in graphic rating scales with numerical scoring since serious logical difficulties and practical inadequacies present flaws which more than offset claimed advantages. Difficulties are inherent in the technique itself, even when the scales are administered under the best possible conditions. Supposed advantages have to do with consideration of separately defined traits of equal weight, to which assigned point values produce a total score representing the over-all value of an employee. Such a procedure assumes that it is possible to substitute one trait for another. Aptitude test studies have proved this fallacious unless some system of weighting traits by importance or setting critical scores is established. Numerical summary can be justified only if raters do not rate distinct traits. Numeric rating scales do not assist raters in obtaining common standards since correction methods must be applied. A direct study of repeated ratings of supervisors would indicate that reliability is low. A method based on the assumption that experienced supervisors should be able to place subordinates in three categories of over-all value is recommended. A suggested "Inventory of Personnel" includes rating employees as outstanding, average, or poor by considering their reliability, ability to get along with others, technical knowledge of the job, ability to instruct others in the job, and interest in the work. The form reduces paper work and is a means of obtaining useful information upon special traits. The inventory is aimed at making fewer baseless assumptions and securing some of the advantages of currently popular rating techniques while making the task of the rater as simple as possible. (Article contains a suggested form of employee appraisal and a bibliography.)—*Nesta M. Gallas.*

TRAINING

93. Perkins, John A. **The conference method of in-service training.** *Public Management* 27 (5) May, 1945: 137-140.—The Institute for Training in Municipal Administration has prepared eight management manuals which have often been used as the basis for group training programs. For success, a training conference plan must consider the composition of the group involved both as to size and homogeneity of viewpoint. The meeting place should be comfortable, with a seating arrangement which will promote informal discussion. Weekly meetings tend to hold interest better than less frequent ones. If the meetings are held late in the afternoon, partially on the employees' time and partially on the city's time, the ad-

vantages of both systems may be gained. The choice of a conference leader is most important. He should be reasonably well informed on the subject, but should be more concerned with drawing out the participants than in imparting information. He may be drawn from the group itself or from local educational circles if there is someone who is capable of leading discussion on municipal problems. At various stages in the program the leader must provide for progress summarizations, either by himself or by members of the group. The members have responsibilities too. They should be prepared to participate fully, to express opinions and feelings without regard to their popularity, to refrain from speech-making, to pay attention to the ideas of others, and to accept the judgments of the group rather than to hang to a point to the bitter end. Whenever possible the group should be led to a conclusion. Even if this should not be possible, however, the time has not been wasted, for discussion itself has many benefits.—*Kenneth E. Dougan.*

WORK TERMS; CONDITIONS OF EMPLOYMENT

94. Harvey, Verne K. **An industrial health program for federal employees.** *American Journal of Public Health* 35 (3) March, 1945: 239-42.—Although the United States government is one of the largest single employers of civilian workers in the world, it does not have an adequate health program for its employees. In 1942, illness in one federal department cost an average loss of 10.2 days per employee. Medical and health programs introduced in 234 industries reduced their illness absences 29.7 per cent. The introduction of a similarly efficient health program in the federal government would have saved this one department 246,000 man days a year, or the equivalent of 820 full time employees. House Resolution 5257, granting authority for federal agencies to establish health programs for employees, provides for treatment of minor illnesses and dental conditions, pre-employment and other examinations, referral to private physicians and dentists, and the establishment of educational health programs. The scope and standards of the health programs should be consistent with the purpose of the agency, the federal government's responsibility as outlined by the Employees' Compensation Act of 1916, the employee's natural allegiance to his family physician, and the accepted limitation placed upon industrial medicine. Such a program should provide for preventive services, advisory and diagnostic services, and treatment. Preventive services should include health examinations, promotion of adequate environmental hygiene, control of communicable diseases, mental hygiene, health education, and health records. Advisory and diagnostic services consist of informing the worker of his physical condition, assisting him to maintain good health, evaluating his symptoms, and referring him to a private physician. Treatment includes prompt handling of illness and injuries incurred while on duty and referral for complete treatment; treatment on the job of minor non-compensable injuries and diseases; emergency care for serious non-service-connected injuries or diseases.

or referral to a private physician or hospital; special treatments, given only on written request of the employee's private physician. Such a health program should be placed administratively as high in the organization as possible. Its staff should consist of one medical officer for each 4,000 to 6,000 employees and one nurse for each 500 to 1000 employees, depending on the distribution of employees, extent of industrial hazards, employee turnover, etc. It would also require an adequate stenographic and clerical staff. Such a program is not intended to displace but rather to aid the private physician in his services to government employees. The establishment of such programs for government workers would help government agencies conserve their human resources and would improve employee efficiency and morale.—*Alice B. Kennedy.*

SEPARATION; RETIREMENT

95. Altmeyer, A. J. Social security for state and local government employees. *Social Security Bulletin* 8 (4) April, 1942: 4-7.—The denial of coverage to all state and local employees under the Social Security Act of 1935 was due primarily to legal problems in taxing their pay rolls rather than to the fact that some of them already had protection. The legal problems no longer appear insurmountable. What role, therefore, could the basic social security system play in strengthening existing provisions for this group? Although through the decade during which the Social Security Act has been law, retirement systems for state and local government workers have continued to grow, almost a million and a half of these workers still lack any systematic protection against the risks of loss of earnings through old age or death. Even under the best of these systems, the protection offered may be completely wiped out by a change in employment. The advantages of coverage under the national system are obvious for those without retirement provisions, and the advantages for members of existing retirement systems also are apparent.

Many state and local government employees have expressed the desire for coverage under the federal system and several states have petitioned Congress to extend social insurance to public employees or have passed resolutions in favor of such an extension. Both types of systems, however, have definite roles to play in achieving the objective of the Board, which is the increase of the protection available to workers and their families. In a plan coordinating the two types of systems, the basic continuing protection of social insurance, crediting all service no matter where or in what occupation, would be supplemented by the state and local retirement plan with a benefit in addition to the basic benefit of the federal system. This type of coordination is similar to that now being used in private industry where the successful adaptation of industrial retirement systems has resulted, not in the destruction of these systems, but rather in their rapid expansion. Because the costs of social insurance are distributed among large groups over a long period of time, they do not fall heavily on the individual. Though benefits are intended to provide only a basic minimum, their low cost permits families to build additional security through savings, private insurance, or supplementary pension systems. In addition, comprehensive social insurance provisions for public employees could include protection against the risk of unemployment. Practically no state system now has this protection, for the job security attached to public employment is commonly overrated. It seemed advisable to avoid the problem attached to the legality of levying the federal social insurance tax on state and local governments in their role of employee during the early days of the program. Now that the insurance program has been functioning for 8 years, there is no excuse for continued exclusion. Because of amendment of the Social Security Act to permit voluntary compacts with the Social Security Board, questions of sovereignty and constitutionality need not arise.—*Joan C. Lambert.*

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